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ABSTRACT

This thesis investigated the hiring trends for athletic leadership positions in California's community colleges from 1988 through 1997. The directory published by the Commission on Athletics (COA) was used to identify and gather information on athletic departments, and an Equal Employment Opportunity Survey was designed to assess the gender and ethnicity of athletic leadership positions. The California Community Colleges offer 12 men's and 10 women's intercollegiate sports to over 23,000 student-athletes. Athletic leadership opportunities for women and minorities have been limited. A literature review highlights court decisions and legislation that have played important roles in expanding opportunities in intercollegiate athletics. This study surveyed all 101 colleges holding membership in the COA. The survey contained questions about sports offered and the gender and ethnicity of athletic directors and head coaches to determine trends over the 9-year period. The proportion of women's sports offerings increased from .413 to .455. The proportion of women athletic directors increased from .188 to .261 and the proportion of women head coaches increased from .168 to .222. Changes in ethnicity over the nine-year period were not significant. Appendices include a list of California community colleges, the survey instrument, and the cover letter. Contains 16 tables and over 100 references. (RDG)

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ABSTRACT

GENDER AND ETHNIC HIRING TRENDS OF ATHLETIC DIRECTORS AND HEAD COACHES IN THE CALIFORNIA COMMUNITY COLLEGES FROM 1988 THROUGH 1997

By

Reyna Griselda Rosas

August 1998

The purpose of this study was to determine the gender and ethnic hiring trends of athletic leadership positions in the California Community Colleges for the years 1988 through 1997. The directory published by the Commission on Athletics (COA) was used to contact and determine the population of the athletic departments. A survey was designed to assess the gender and ethnicity of athletic leadership positions at each college.

The review of literature highlighted court decisions and state and federal legislation to determine the magnitude and impact these decisions had on the employment of women and people of color in athletic leadership positions. This 9-year study indicated that the proportion of women and people of color compared to Caucasian males in athletic leadership positions remain low.

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GENDER AND ETHNIC HIRING TRENDS OF ATHLETIC DIRECTORS AND HEAD COACHES IN THE CALIFORNIA COMMUNITY COLLEGES FROM 1988 THROUGH 1997

A THESIS

Presented to the Department of Kinesiology and Physical Education

California State University, Long Beach

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

By Reyna Griselda Rosas

BA, 1986, California State University, Long Beach

August 1998

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WE, THE UNDERSIGNED MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE,

HAVE APPROVED THIS THESIS

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Historical Overview

The United States of America has taken pride in its expansive multicultural and multiracial society. Known as the land of opportunity, this nation has fought to create equality for all humankind through its constitutional amendments and legislative actions. However, with the waves of immigration shaping today's society, this country continually faces societal challenges in education, employment and intercollegiate athletics, particularly in the State of California (Acosta, 1986; Valverde, 1988; Wilson and Justiz, 1988).

While educational leaders and legislators recognize the concerns and importance of diversity, history has shown a long journey of discrimination in employment and higher education. However, it is important to note that the limited number of equitable opportunities for employment and education have not gone unnoticed (Butler & Young, 1990; Ruiz, 1994; Wilson & Justiz, 1988). The literature reveals historic court decisions and legislation that have had great impact on diversity issues including: Plessy v. Ferguson (1896), Brown v. Board of Education (1954), the 1972 Higher Education Guidelines, Title VI and Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, Title IX of the Educational Amendment Acts of 1972, and Assembly Bill (AB) 1725 (1989). These cases have laid the foundation for educational equity. While members of potentially

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underrepresented groups are attending institutions of higher learning, there is still a definite concern with the low numbers of ethnic minorities and women achieving positions in higher education (Abney & Richey, 1992; Acosta & Carpenter, 1996; Butler & Young, 1990; Carter & Wilson, 1996; Hudson & Holmes, 1994; Jeffe, 1995; Nussbaum, 1997; Ruiz, 1994).

Valverde (1988) and Wilson and Justiz (1988) maintain that the low number of women and ethnic minorities in administrative positions is due to insufficient candidate hiring pools and lack of commitment to affirmative action guidelines. Other noted researchers acknowledge that opportunities in educational leadership positions have not mirrored the growth of cultural and racial groups consistent with the composition of the general population (Abney & Richey, 1992; Butler & Young, 1990; Carter & Wilson, 1996). Nonetheless, Dixon (1997) and Hudson (1992) maintain that the low number of ethnic minorities entering post-secondary education is the single most common factor affecting their lack of representation

Most notably, women of color face even more discrimination than any other underrepresented groups in opportunities for advancement in leadership roles (Carter, Pearson, & Shavlik, 1988; Corbett, 1995; Delano, 1990; Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991). Carter, et al., suggests that the lines of bias personify the race and gender of the individual. Some perceptions of this bias include women of color being socially subservient, chaotic and idiosyncratic in comparison to their white female counterparts; in addition, this perception separates them from the white male in society. Women of color believe they must be smarter, study longer, work harder, and be more articulate

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than everyone else to overcome the disparities of racism and sexism in higher education and the workforce (Abney & Richey, 1992; Delano, 1990; Eitzen & Furst, 1989). Dixon (1997) emphasizes that education and expertise overcome the prejudice of race and gender. Thus, lack of education and expertise in the particular field of study constitutes inadequate opportunities in leadership, salary, and other elements related to positions of power.

To overcome this historical pattern of discrimination among ethnic minorities and women, court decisions regarding segregation, such as Plessy v. Ferguson (1896), and educational issues under Brown v. Board of Education (1954) have attempted to abolish discrimination in the educational environment. Furthermore, Congress enacted affirmative action legislation, such as Title VI and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the 1972 Higher Education Guidelines, to prevent and abolish employment discrimination.

These legislative policies were a breakthrough in providing equitable recruitment and fair hiring practices for educational programs. Particularly in educational employment, the 1972 Higher Education Guidelines ensured affirmative action to prevent discrimination on the basis of race, creed, color, national origin, or sex. This legislative action called for institutions of higher learning to extend recruitment and hiring practices beyond the scope of the traditional network approach. Title IX of the Educational Amendments Act of 1972 prohibits sexual discrimination in educational institutions receiving federal funds (United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare [USDHEW], 1972).

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These legislative policies and Supreme Court decisions established ultimate goals that respond to all members of society with new opportunities in the educational systems and employment positions for women and people of color (Abney & Richey, 1992; Dixon, 1997; Jeffe, 1995).

The State of California

California, one of the most culturally and economically diverse states, is continually confronted with the pressures of gender equity and ethnically changing demographics. These issues are additionally encumbered by social and economic transformation, including poverty, incarceration and welfare. One pathway to secure California's economic prosperity and social stability is through education. For thousands of individuals, that journey is through the community college system (Nussbaum, 1997).

The State of California enacted legislation to govern affirmative action to protect the equal rights and opportunities of all individuals. The legislation includes the California Education Code: Sections 200-264 and the California Government Code: Sections 11135-11139.5. These codes affirm that no person will be subject to discrimination, with regard to ethnic group identification, national origin, religion, age, sex, color or disability, from any program receiving financial assistance from the state.

Despite ratified legislation to protect the equal rights and opportunities of all individuals, affirmative action implementation was not effective in the State of California (BGCCC, 1989). Therefore, the BGCCC saw the need to support more legislation to strengthen affirmative action guidelines for employment in the community college system.

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In 1988, California AB 1725 was adopted as a design and laid out a structure for the integration of equitable recruitment and hiring practices for underrepresented groups such as ethnic minorities and women. This California legislation accentuated the commitment and support of equitable opportunities in the community colleges for women and people of color.

Despite this legislative effort, on November 5, 1996, the people of California voted to overturn affirmative action at the state level with the passage of Proposition 209. One year later, on November 3, 1997, the United States Supreme Court rejected the appeal to rescind Proposition 209 and the law remains in effect (California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office [CCCCO], 1997).

Leadership Roles in Athletics

Educational leadership opportunities for women and ethnic minorities have been limited; intercollegiate athletics is one area that has received noticeable attention. Intercollegiate athletics represents an important component of our society's social and economic fabric. Historically, sport in society for men was about power, competition and success; for women it is about team play, fun and leisure activities. Men and women did not compete on the same playing field; thus, social issues were not aggressively compared (Eitzen & Sage, 1993).

Today, issues of power and success are equally important to both men and women. Sport represents an important component of our nation's leadership evolution (Abney & Richey, 1992; Acosta & Carpenter, 1996; Eitzen & Sage, 1993). It is important to note that White males have long administered the control and management

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of men's athletic programs. On the other hand, over 90% of women's athletic programs were administered by females up through the 1970s (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996; Sommer, 1997).

One of the most influential pieces of federal legislation, Title IX of the Education Amendments Act of 1972, prohibited sexual discrimination at any educational institution receiving federal funds. It was after the passage of Title IX and into the early 1980's that women began to lose their athletic leadership positions. Athletic departments combined men and women's programs, and the majority of athletic leadership roles went to men, who had more tenure in employment (Acosta & Carpenter, 1988).

Twenty-five years after the passage of Title IX, the impact of the consolidation of sports programs tremendously affected both men and women in athletic leadership positions. This legislation provided the possibility of comparable pay for coaches of women sports to that of coaches of male sports, as well as increased leadership positions. The most dramatic impact of this legislation was the increase of female participation in sports. While Title IX increased participation and called for equitable salaries for coaches of women's teams, it also unexpectedly and drastically decreased the number of women participating in sport leadership positions at the interscholastic (Maier, 1989) and intercollegiate levels (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996). While federal legislation provided the impetus for increased involvement and participation of women and people of color in athletics, they are nearly nonexistent in athletic leadership positions when compared to their Caucasian male counterparts (Acosta, 1986; Acosta & Carpenter, 1996; Abney &

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Richey, 1992; Amateur Athletic Foundation of Los Angeles [AAFLA], 1992; Carter & Wilson, 1996; Corbett, 1995; Sommer, 1997).

Summary

The attempt of federal and state legislation to increase leadership opportunities for women and people of color has not been successful according to the results of several studies (Carter & Wilson, 1996; Contreras & Valverde, 1994; Hudson & Holmes, 1994). Although federal and state regulations have provided some legal substance; particularly in intercollegiate athletics, there have been few opportunities for ethnic minorities and women in leadership positions (Abney and Richey, 1992; Acosta & Carpenter, 1996, Sommer, 1997).

Statement of the Problem

What gender and ethnic hiring trends have occurred in the employment of athletic administrators and head coaches from 1988 through 1997 in the California Community Colleges?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this descriptive survey research was to determine the proportion of female and ethnic minority athletic directors and head coaches in the California community colleges for the years 1988 through 1997.

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Research Questions

The following research questions were posed to serve as a guide to this study:

1. How many sports offerings are sanctioned by the COA for men and women to determine Title IX compliance for the years 1988 through 1997?

2. What hiring trends have occurred for female and ethnic minority athletic directors for the years 1988 through 1997?

3. What hiring trends have occurred for female and ethnic minority head coaches for the years 1988 through 1997?

4. What hiring trends have occurred for female head coaches of women and men's sports programs for the years 1988 through 1997?

5. Is there a difference between the number of women of color compared to men of color in athletic leadership positions for the years 1988 through 1997?

6. Is there a difference between the number of Caucasians versus ethnic minority in athletic leadership positions for the years 1988 through 1997?

Hypotheses

These hypotheses were formulated as a result of the research questions:

1. There will be an increase in female sport offerings in the California community colleges from 1988 through 1997.

2. There will be an increase in the proportion of females holding athletic director positions in the California community colleges from 1988 through 1997.

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3. There will be an increase in the proportion of females holding head coach positions of women's sports programs in the California community colleges from 1988 through 1997.

4. There will be an increase in the proportion of females holding head coach positions of men's sports programs in the California community colleges from 1988 through 1997.

5. There will be an increase in the proportion of people of color holding athletic director or head coach positions in the California community colleges from 1988 through 1997.

6. There will be an increase in the proportion of people of color holding head coach positions in the California community colleges from 1988 through 1997.

7. There will be an increase in the proportion of women of color compared to men of color in athletic director positions.

8. There will be an increase in the proportion of women of color compared to men of color in athletic director positions.

Assumptions

For the purpose of this study, it is assumed that (a) the Equal Employment Opportunity Survey is a valid and reliable instrument in recording the athletic leadership positions in the California Community Colleges; (b) all responses were recorded accurately; and (c) the subjects responded truthfully to the survey.

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Delimitations

The scope of this study encompasses the following: (a) all 101 California community colleges belonging to the Commission on Athletics (COA) from 1988 through 1997; (b) sports sanctioned by the COA; (c) the gender of athletic directors; (d) the gender of head coaches of all sports programs sanctioned by the COA; (e) the gender of head coaches of women's sports programs; (f) the gender of head coaches of men's sports programs; (g) the ethnicity of athletic directors; (h) the gender and ethnicity of the athletic directors; (i) the proportion of Caucasian athletic directors versus ethnic minority athletic directors in the California community colleges; (j) the ethnicity of the head coaches; (k) gender and ethnicity of head coaches; and (l) the proportion of Caucasians head coaches versus ethnic minority head coaches in the California community colleges, COA.

Limitations

This study is limited to: (a) samples representing those California community colleges belonging to the Commission on Athletics for the years 1988 through 1997; and (b) the degree of validity and reliability of the Equal Employment Opportunity Survey.

Definition of Terms

The definitions of terms are operationally defined for the sole purpose of this study and include:

Affirmative Action: A procedure that requires an organization to provide opportunities to admit, promote, or hire more minorities and women, to redress past discrimination.

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Asian/Pacific Islander: Asian/Pacific Islander refers to the people of Southeast Asian, Far East, and Indian subcontinent origin.

Athletic Administrators: These positions encompass male and/or female athletic directors.

Athletic Leadership Positions: Athletic leadership positions refer to athletic directors or head coaches whose athletic leader positions influence athletic participants at the intercollegiate level.

Black: Black refers to African American people of African descent (non-Hispanic).

BCA (Black Coaches Association): The Black Coaches Association was developed by Black coaches throughout the nation with concern of the lack of hiring opportunities given to Black coaches.

BGCCC (Board of Governors of the California Community Colleges): The BGCCC is the legislative body for the California Community Colleges.

Caucasian: Caucasian refers to White European or Middle Eastern descent (non-Hispanic).

CCCCO (California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office): The CCCCO oversees the California community colleges.

COA (Commission on Athletics): The COA is authorized by the California Education Code to supervise the administration of men and women's intercollegiate athletic programs.

De facto: De facto refers to the actual exercising of authority and/or power.

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De jure: De jure is according to the law; by right; legally or rightfully.

Equity: The term equity refers to the proportion of women in athletic leadership positions to the total number of athletic leadership positions available. For example, if the school population was made up of 50% female, they should also comprise 50% of the athletes, the coaches, and athletic directors (United States Department of Education [USDE], 1996).

Ethnicity: Ethnicity refers to race and/or ethnic origin, that is, Native American; Asian or Pacific Islander; African American or Black (non-Hispanic); Caucasian or White (non-Hispanic); Latino (Hispanic); and Other ethnic groups.

Gender: The term gender refers to male or female; men or women; boys or girls.

Intercollegiate: Intercollegiate refers to post-secondary and/or college level competition.

Interscholastic: Interscholastic refers to secondary and/or high school level competition.

Latinos: Latinos refers to people of Mexican, Central American and South American origin, and people of Caribbean origin with Spanish surnames. Latin Americans of African origin are counted as Latinos, not African Americans.

Minority: The term pertains particularly to women and people of color, in compliance with state legislation Assembly Bill 1725 for California community colleges.

Native American /Alaskan Native: The term refers to people of North American and American Indian origin.

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NCAA (National Collegiate Athletic Association): The NCAA is authorized to supervise the administration of men and women's intercollegiate athletic programs at Division I, II, and III institutions.

OCR (Office for Civil Rights): The Office for Civil Rights ensures that hiring practices are within the confines of the law.

People of Color: The term refers to individuals of various races and/or ethnic backgrounds such as African American/Black, Asian/Pacific Islander, Hispanic/Latinos, and Native American.

Underrepresentation: Individuals or minority ethnic groups whose low representation numbers reflect education and leadership positions.

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CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter offers a historical overview of the Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution, with regard to the struggles of ethnic minorities and women in America. This chapter presents United States Supreme Court decisions and state and federal legislation regarding ethnic and gender access to education, employment practices, and its impact on athletics. This review reflects current trends and issues of gender and ethnic representation of athletic leadership positions at the interscholastic, intercollegiate, and professional levels.

The Declaration of Independence & The United States Constitution

Over its history, the United States of America has experienced recurring themes dealing with racial and sexual discrimination in education and employment practices. The Declaration of Independence (1776), a document that declared all men are created equal, initially excluded Native Americans, Black slaves and women. In this document, Native Americans were declared savages, slaves were valued as property, women were considered appendages of men, and all were deemed not worthy of mention (Chambers, 1987; Starr, 1987). Eleven years later, in 1787, the United States Constitution was written. Before it was amended, the Constitution made no direct reference of equality for slaves or women. The founding fathers of the Constitution circumvented unsettling issues of equality towards slaves by indirectly using the euphemism "such persons" or

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"other persons." Again, women were not mentioned at all (Berry, 1988; Starr, 1987).

Post Civil War--Legislative Action

Eighty-seven years after the signing of the Declaration of Independence, the United States Civil War began over unsolved issues of slavery. In 1863, as the Civil War ensued, President Abraham Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation, freeing all slaves. However, Starr (1987) claims that the slaves were not emancipated until after the Civil War. The 13th Amendment, ratified in 1865 and overruling the Dred Scott decision, freed the slaves by eliminating their status as property. The 14th Amendment, ratified in 1868, granted citizenship and equal protection to all individuals born or naturalized in the United States.

During this period, America opened its doors to China. The Chinese were sanctioned unrestricted immigration and granted employment on the railroads. However, they were soon subjected to low pay and long hours. Within 15 years after their arrival into the United States, Chinese nationals were exposed to violence and accused of taking employment from Caucasian Americans. Consequently, Congress immediately passed the Chinese Exclusion Act (1882), which prohibited further Chinese immigration into the United States (Glazer, 1987; Wilson, 1996).

The 15th Amendment, ratified in 1870, made it illegal to deny the right to vote based on race, color, or previous servitude. This amendment allowed Black males the right to vote. Nevertheless, Berry (1988) and Franklin (1988) concur that Black voters were subjected to poll taxes, literary tests, residence and registration requirements, and grandfather clauses that in essence denied them the right to vote. It was not until 1964

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that the 24th Amendment banned poll taxes at federal elections. Berry (1988) noted that the 19th Amendment of 1920, which provided women the right to vote, was not fully enacted until Congress passed the Voting Rights Act of 1965. The Voting Rights Act of 1965 prevented further voter discrimination against people of color (Franklin, 1988).

In 1883 the United States Supreme Court declared the Civil Rights Act of 1875 unconstitutional, asserting that the 14th Amendment had not authorized Congress to enact laws extending civil rights to Blacks, thus denying Blacks equal protection under the law (Franklin, 1988). Chambers (1987) and Glazer (1987) interpreted the 14th Amendment's "due process" as a service to protect the rights of business rather than the interests of disenfranchised minorities.

People of color throughout the country were subjected to segregated schools; restrooms, transportation, access to education, and employment practices. These race-imbued practices of segregation were known as Jim Crow Laws (Berry, 1988; Franklin, 1988). Though several constitutional amendments evolved due to the Civil War, the nation continued to grapple with issues of equity. Disenfranchised citizens turned to the legal system to rectify improprieties in equity, forcing the United States to live up to its declaration that all men are created equal.

United States Supreme Court Decisions Prior to Brown v. the Board of Education

Historically, racial segregation was the mainstay of formal education for many disenfranchised minorities throughout the United States. Ethnic minorities were segregated, denied the right to an equitable education, and educationally disadvantaged (Brown, 1994; Contreras and Valverde, 1994; Parker, 1988; Riley, 1994). The first

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challenge of equity occurred in Plessy v. Ferguson (1896). The United States Supreme Court sanctioned racially separate facilities as equal. For people of color, separate educational facilities, without the provision of equitable educational opportunity was common place in American schools until disenfranchised minorities began to challenge their constitutional rights on equitable facilities and educational programs (Contreras & Valverde, 1994; Ruiz, 1994).

For Latinos, Mexican Americans spearheaded the first legal constitutional protection against school segregation as early as the 1930s in both state and federal courts (Contreras & Valverde, 1994). In a Texas case, Independent School District v. Salvatierra (1930), the district successfully contended that students' language deficiency justified separation by race.

The first federal court decision regarding Latinos was heard in California in Mendez v. Westminster School District (1946). In this case, the court ruled that separate schools violated the equal protection provisions of the Constitution. In Texas, Delgado v. Bastrop Independent School District (1948) the courts ruled the district's practice of segregation through a separate school based on language deficiency and Spanish-surnamed individuals violated the 14th Amendment. The court directed that the separate classes for non-English proficient students be held on the same campus.

All of these cases denied due process and equal protection under the 14th Amendment. Despite the rulings in Salvatierra, Mendez, and Delgado, school officials continued to practice de facto segregation (Contreras & Valverde, 1994). In addition, with the perception of desegregation compliance, Contreras and Valverde (1994) reported

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that school officials manipulated their education systems by labeling Latinos ethnically white for purposes of desegregation. Under this label, Mexican Americans were segregated from White students and paired with African American students in separate schools that were then considered desegregated. For Mexican Americans, the impact and challenge of being labeled White ethnically did not surface until Cisneros v. Corpus Christi Independent School District (1970) where they finally emerged as their own race and were no longer identified as Caucasian.

For African Americans, court cases challenging separate and equal facilities in higher educational institutions have been well documented. In Missouri ex rel. Gaines v. Canada (1938) and Sipuel v. the University of Oklahoma (1948), Blacks were denied access to the campus law school, although it paid expenses for them to attend an adjacent law school. The United States Supreme Court held both institutions in violation of the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment and ordered these institutions to provide equal facilities within the confines of the state. In Sweatt v. Painter (1950) and McLaurin v. Oklahoma State Board of Regents for Higher Education (1950), the courts found that separate facilities denied minority students equal educational opportunities in graduate and law schools. In particular, the Black student admitted to the law school in the McLaurin case was segregated inside the classroom and made to sit behind a door. Furthermore, in 1950, Mississippi's Black school children suffered with poor facilities and poorly trained Black teachers who had not even completed high school. Yet, every White segregated school in Mississippi had a White teacher with at least an earned high school diploma (Parker, 1988).

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In general, the United States Supreme Court decisions ruled that although segregated schools had the same facilities, segregation denied ethnic minority students due process and equal protection under the 14th Amendment of the Constitution. Despite these important rulings, many states continued to practice de facto segregation although it was illegal under the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment of the Constitution (Brown, 1994; Chambers, 1987; Contreras & Valverde, 1994; Parker, 1988; Riley, 1994; Russo, Harris, & Sandidge, 1994).

The Impact of Brown v. Board of Education

The most significant case regarding racial inequities that affected all of education was Brown v. Board of Education (1954). The plaintiffs argued that de jure segregation deprived Black students equal protection under the 14th Amendment. Those students subjected to this inequality were not allowed educational input, educational programs, teachers, and other resources that provide equal educational opportunities (Ruiz, 1994). Nevertheless, a lower level court applied Plessy v. Ferguson (1896) and overruled Brown (1954), contending that equality of treatment was accommodated when races were provided separate but equal facilities (Ruiz, 1994). As the case progressed, the United States Supreme Court found segregation harmful to Black children. The court ruled that segregation based on race labels one race as inferior to other races and therefore imposes a stigma of inferiority and deprives them equal protection under the 14th Amendment. Consequently, the United States Supreme Court declared de jure (rightfully) and de facto (exercising of authority) segregation unconstitutional (Ruiz, 1994).

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In Brown v. Board of Education (1955) the United States Supreme Court established a framework of educational policy and remedies for desegregation and set deliberations to speed up the desegregation process (Riley, 1994; Ruiz, 1994). Moreover, schools labeled as segregated soon came under the power of court supervision, but segregation continued to flourish during this period, particularly in the South. Disenfranchised ethnic minorities sought educational freedoms through the courts, especially Black families that had suffered from the inequities of discrimination by the Ku Klux Klan (Parker, 1988).

Contreras and Valverde (1994) argue that abolishing segregation has been particularly difficult for Latinos and African Americans. Despite their population growth, these minorities are continuously exposed to segregation, inferior facilities and unequal education, receiving minimal educational resources compared to White students. According to several researchers, Brown v. Board of Education (1955) negatively affected all students and minority teachers in education. The benefit of integrating White and Black students into one school system was the cause of the termination of thousands of African American administrators and teachers. Approximately 82,000 African American teachers who were responsible for the education of two million African American children lost their positions. Ten years later, in 1965, 38,000 African American teachers lost their positions in 17 southern states (Glazer, 1987; Hawkins, 1994; Hudson & Holmes, 1994). Smith (1987) reported a 66% decline in the number of African American students majoring in education between 1975-1985. Moreover, an estimated 37,717 ethnic minority candidates and teachers, including 21,515 African

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Americans, were eliminated as a result of newly installed teacher certification and teacher education program admissions requirements.

Although educational institutions had 40 years to comply with Brown v. Board of Education (1954 & 1955), many educational institutions continue the vestiges of segregation. Consequently, the nation continues to struggle with issues of inequities regarding race and educational practices (Butler, 1994; Contreras & Valverde, 1994; Hawkins, 1994; Hudson & Holmes, 1994).

Secondary Educational Attainment for People of Color

For most people of color, high school attrition rates and the ethnic composition in post-secondary institutions have affected their educational outcomes and successes. Still, it is an important insight to rate and evaluate access to higher education for students of color (Carter & Wilson, 1996; Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991; Lewis, 1996). The reality of educational discrimination, while possibly only subtle today, continues to deprive people of color (Sleeter, 1994; Wilson, 1996).

Statistics show improvements for all ethnic groups in high school completion rates in 1994: African Americans and Hispanics were 77% and 56.6%, respectively, while Whites were at 82.6%. Among Native Americans, those completing high school rose to 66%, while Asian students have had the most significant educational attainment rates at 80.4%. (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, 1996).

In the gender gap, women continue to complete high school at rates higher than those for men. In 1994, men had a high school completion rate of 79.4% while their

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female counterparts were at 83.6%. Nationwide, White females have the highest completion rate among all ethnic groups with 84.6% while their male counterparts were at 80.7%. African American women were at 80% compared to African American men at 73.7%. High school completion rates for Latinos fluctuated over a ten-year period with Latino males dropping to 53.8% with Latino women at 59.8% (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, 1996). Asian men posted higher completion rates at 83.6% compared to their female counterparts at 80.0% (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1995).

Higher Education Trends for Women & People of Color

College enrollment figures indicate a steady increase for students of color and female students since the 1980s. Despite this enrollment growth, ethnic minorities in particular are extremely underrepresented at predominantly White colleges and universities (Carter & Wilson, 1996).

African Americans and Latinos continued to trail Whites in their rates of college participation in 1994. Nearly 43% of White high school graduate students entered college compared to 35.5% for African Americans and 33.2% for Latinos. Unlike White and African Americans, Latinos lost some ground in the college participation rates from previous years (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, 1996).

Overall in the gender gap, women continue to enroll in college at higher rates than men. Women were at 43.1% compared to 41.6% for men. For White women, their enrollment rate was 43.7% compared to White men at 41.7%. African American men

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recorded an enrollment rate of 34.5% with African American women at 36.4%. Latino males were at 30.6% while their female counterparts recorded a higher rate of 36.0% (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, 1996). Meanwhile, Asian men reported a higher enrollment rate of 43.2% compared to Asian women at 35.5% (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1995). Overall, all four major ethnic groups achieved enrollment growth in 1994.

The General Accounting Office (1994) reported Latinos having the greatest dropout rate of any ethnic group. Factors in dropping out for Latinos were limited English skills, poverty, and early parenthood. Barriers faced by young Latinos in resuming their education, included poverty, poor English skills, the time needed to complete schooling, and job and family responsibilities. For Latinos, De la Torre (1996) emphasizes that the prospect of recruiting them into teacher education programs is seriously constrained by the relatively high drop out rates and their low percent of graduates completing a university preparatory curriculum.

For Native Americans, O'Brien (1992) reported they were more likely than any other racial or ethnic group to be considered "at risk" students. Risk factors attributed to their attrition rates include single parent families, low parent education, limited English skills, low family income, sibling dropout, and being home alone. In addition, Garrett (1995) believes cultural discontinuity between mainstream expectations and Native American cultural values effects the success of Native Americans in the educational setting.

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Although Asian students have had the most significant educational attainment rates of all people of color, O'Hare and Felt (1991) stress that the most recent Southeast Asian immigrants are not as educationally motivated as their predecessors. Numerous researchers have reported that many students of color are not academically prepared to enter post-secondary institutions (Goodlad & Keating, 1994; Herrington, 1993; Oakes, 1990; Riley, 1994). Consequently, other researchers are convinced there will definitely be an even greater need for a community college education in the 21st century (Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991; Lewis, 1996; Nussbaum, 1997).

Nussbaum (1997) maintains the economic and secure pathway to post-secondary education for all people is best achieved at the community college level. With the cost of higher education rising, the two-year college has become the educational option for women and most students of color. As for women, Dixon (1997) believes progress in attaining higher education will have positive effects on women's successes in penetrating what have been exclusively male occupations. Budhos (1996) maintains mentoring is the key for women to survive the passage from graduate student to seeking scholarly employment. Additionally, mentors must season and groom female graduate students to be competitive in the university marketplace.

De la Torre (1996) reaffirms that those colleges and universities which recognize the demographic shift and provide developmental programs, are in the forefront of enhancing educational success for students of color. These developmental programs provide financial assistance, mentors and recruiters to increase the pool of graduates at the university level. De la Torre emphasizes that without affirmative action, these

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developmental programs, as well as the educational pipeline for diverse students, would be jeopardized.

Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964

Because of past discrimination, people of color and women have had to struggle to exercise the same civil rights as White men, and they began to exert their civil rights through litigation (Tucker, 1996). What ensued took ten years after the Brown v. the Board of Education (1954) decision. Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion or national origin in any federally funded college or university. Particularly in athletics, Title VI prohibits institutions from establishing separate athletic programs on the basis of race or national origin. (Reith, 1992).

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, known as affirmative action, prohibits discrimination against a person's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin in federally funded programs, public and private employment, and public accommodations. The specific goals and procedures of this legislation are intended to eliminate the vestiges of racial and sexual discrimination at all levels of the workforce and in the educational system (Ruiz, 1994; Tucker, 1996). In addition, Ruiz (1995) contends affirmative action programs require governmental entities to act in a race-conscious and/or gender-conscious manner. For that reason, public employers' affirmative action programs may be challenged under both Title VII and the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment to the United States Constitution.

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The 1972 Higher Education Guidelines

The 1972 Higher Education Guidelines ensured that no consideration of race, creed, color, national origin, or sex, would take place in the hiring process of institutions of higher learning. These guidelines set precedence to extend recruitment and hiring practices beyond the scope of the traditional network approach. Further, institutions receiving federal funds were mandated by the federal government to expand their recruitment and hiring efforts of academic administrators from underrepresented minority groups (USDHEW, 1972).

Employment Status of Ethnic Minority Faculty in Higher Education

The need for more educators of color becomes even more evident when one looks at today's demographic trends in education. If current US demographic trends, it is projected that by the year 2000, public institutions will consist of a 35% ethnic minority student population while only 5% of the teaching force will be of color (Carter & Wilson, 1996).

Despite educational employment gains since the passage of the 1972 Higher Education guidelines, faculty of color worked primarily at historically Black colleges and universities, Puerto Rican universities and community colleges for much of the 20th century (Carter & Wilson, 1996). Colby and Foote (1995) reported that the representation of people of color in higher education positions still remains extremely low. At the community colleges, approximately 90% of the total faculty are Caucasian. The highest percentage of faculty of color is employed at public four-year institutions at 12.6%, and the lowest percentage is noted at the private two-year colleges at 2.6%. In

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particular, the community colleges are under pressure from both internal and external sources to recruit and retain minority faculty members.

Nationwide, Whites made up the majority of full-time faculties with 87.8% while minorities are at a dismal 12.2%. The breakdown of full-time faculty members by ethnicity shows African Americans holding 4.8%, Latinos at 2.3%, with 4.7% Asian Americans and 0.4% for American Indians (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1995). Wilson (1996) attributes these small increases in faculty of color to affirmative action programs by colleges and universities to seek out and employ qualified minority faculty. Carter and Wilson (1996) point out that despite these increased academic achievements for people of color over the past 20 years, they are grossly underrepresented in American higher education.

Barriers to Employment Opportunities for Women and People of Color

Historically, women and people of color have struggled for equal employment in the workforce. Carter and Wilson (1996) point out that discriminatory employment practices remain pervasive with minorities. Most notably, women of color have experienced double jeopardy in higher education positions because they are both female and of color. In addition, they must endure the pressures of a lack of recognition for the richness and diversity of their cultures (Allen, 1995; Arnold, 1993). Wilson (1996) found women of color were hired in education positions that tended to be clustered at the lower rungs of the professoriate as assistant professors and the non-tenure track lecturers at predominantly White institutions. Wilson suggests in his earlier analysis that discriminatory employment practices have been used against women of color.

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Konrad and Pferrer (1991) contend that discrimination and segregation in hiring is influenced by the conditions of the labor market. They found that the pattern of gender and ethnic segregation is the result of individual hiring practices. Other researchers assert underrepresented minority groups' proportions in an occupation, the community or the organization of employment are key factors affecting their placement (Knoppers, Meyer, Ewing, & Forrest, 1991; Stangl & Kane, 1991).

Several researchers suggest that Kanter's (1977) theory offers the best explanation for the underrepresentation of women within male dominated managerial occupations (Konrad & Pferrer; 1991; Knoppers, Meyer, Ewing, & Forrest, 1991; Stangl & Kane, 1991). Kanter's theory of structural determinants of organizational behavior identifies three structural variables--opportunity, power and proportion within organizations that affect the hiring of women. Furthermore, Kanter's theory argues that in the corporate setting, those who possess the same characteristics of the manager in terms of physical and social characteristics are most likely to be promoted. This process is referred to as homologous reproduction in which the dominant group reproduces its own self-image. Women are perceived differently in this process, since they are not duplicates of the dominant group (Kanter, 1977).

Another critical factor in the hiring process is the uncertainty of the applicant. Uncertainty relates to an applicant's abilities and whether an applicant will fit the organization. This uncertainty is likely to be diminished when the administrator is promoted from within, rather than hired from outside the organization. Therefore,

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Konrad and Pferrer (1991) hypothesized that women and ethnic minorities were more likely to be promoted from within than hired from outside the organization.

Wilson (1996) maintains that passage of the California Civil Rights Initiative (CCRI) will virtually eliminate affirmative action programs in public employment, education and contracting, thereby devastating the existing Executive Order 11246 of 1972, as well as civil rights enforcement policies of the past. Encouraging the recruitment of qualified women and minorities in colleges and universities will soon be a thing of the past. Despite this negative momentum, Michael-Bandele (1993) stresses diversity holds tremendous value in education because it encourages different methods of approaching problems and thought processes in a democracy.

Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972

Although the intent of Title IX was to affect all of education, it is the first piece of legislation that deals directly with athletics (Reith, 1992; Sommer, 1997). Title IX states that no person in the United States shall be subject to discrimination on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation, or be denied the benefits of any educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance. Title IX applies to educational institutions, whether private or public that receive any federal fund (United States Department of Education [USDE], 1996).

Title IX Clarification

For more than fifteen years, the Office for Civil Rights (OCR) under the guidance of the Policy Interpretation, enforced Title IX in the area of athletics. With the Policy Interpretation in place, every court has supported issues addressed to Title IX athletics

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(USDE, 1996). The Policy Interpretation was designed specifically for intercollegiate athletic programs. For a better understanding of these policies, the OCR published a document entitled "Clarification for the United States Department of Education" to respond to the guided enforcement of Title IX (Sommer, 1997).

The clarification document was limited to the three different options of compliance to Title IX. Schools can select any one of the three options with which to comply. Option 1 allows the institution to compare the ratios of male and female athletes to the total ratio of full-time male and female students. If institutions are substantially proportionate to their respective enrollments, that institution complies with the participation standards. Further, if an institution can demonstrate that their under-represented gender is less interested and not denied an opportunity to participate in intercollegiate sports, that institution could be deemed to be in compliance. Option 2 allows the institution to demonstrate that it has a history of a continuing practice of program expansion for the underrepresented gender. It must be able to demonstrate responsiveness to the developing interests and abilities of the underrepresented gender. Option 3 states an institution must demonstrate that their present program already effectively accommodates the interests and abilities of the underrepresented gender (USDE, 1996).

The focus of Title IX is on the underrepresentation of gender and equal opportunity. It also calls for all institutions receiving federal funding to provide equal opportunities in athletics. Institutions out of compliance with Title IX usually failed to

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respond to the interests and abilities of the underrepresented gender or provided proportionately fewer athletic opportunities and funding (Sommer, 1997).

There are three basic components of Title IX that must be exercised as it applies to athletics: participation, scholarships, and other benefits (USDE, 1996). Participation requires that women be provided equal opportunity with men to participate in sports. The scholarship component requires that female athletes receive the same proportional scholarship funding as the male athlete. That is, if there are 100 male athletes, 100 female athletes, and $200,000 in a scholarship budget, the budget must be equally divided between the men and women athletes. The other benefits component requires that female athletes receive equal treatment in the provision of equipment and supplies, scheduling of games and practice times, travel and daily allowance, coaching, tutoring, and locker rooms. Also included in this component is equality in publicity and promotions, sports medicine staff and facilities, recruitment of student athletes, and support services.

Impact of Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972

This legislation virtually changed all facets of athletics for females. Title IX significantly enhanced participation rates and quality experiences for girls and women in athletics while at the same time adversely affecting the number of females in athletic leadership roles (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996). During the 1970s, Sommer (1997) reported there were many efforts to amend Title IX to exclude football. The football programs carried the largest number of male athletes and coaches, as well as the bulk of the athletic budget, leaving the female athletic programs with one coach and a minimum budget, hence the efforts failed. Consequently, all sports are included with the understanding that

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Title IX does not mandate a decrease of opportunities for male athletes in order to provide increased opportunities for female participants.

In 1984, the power of Title IX was limited with a dramatic decision made by the United States Supreme Court case in Grove City College v. Bell. The institution, Grove City College, refused to sign Title IX compliance forms. The United States Supreme Court effectively ruled in Grove City College's favor, indicating that its department of athletics was a non-federally funded sub unit of education. Further, only those programs receiving federal funds would be under the jurisdiction of Title IX (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996).

Between 1984 and early 1988, college athletics were exempt from compliance with Title IX. It was not until March 1988 that Congress enacted, over a presidential veto, the Civil Rights Restoration Act (CRRA). This legislation reaffirmed the jurisdiction of Title IX as an institution-wide protection against discrimination (Crawford & Strope, 1996). During the 4 years in which Title IX was absent, one of the most significant occurrences was that women were impacted with scholarship reductions (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996).

The battle regarding Title IX adherence seems never-ending. Despite the Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1988, Title IX continually faces assault from colleges and universities throughout the country (Sommer, 1997). The most recent case heard by the United States Supreme Court was Cohen v. Brown University (1992). The women at Brown University filed and won a class action lawsuit against the university for dropping two female sports from varsity status, a violation of Title IX. Brown University appealed

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on the premise that women were less interested in sports programs than men, and therefore its women's program was not in violation of Title IX. The United States Supreme Court upheld the appeals court decision that Brown University was out of compliance with Title IX. Interestingly, more than 60 colleges and universities spoke out unsuccessfully in support of Brown's position (Naughton, 1998a; Sommer, 1997).

The focal point of most Title IX law suits is participation. With Title IX guaranteeing equal opportunities in all areas of education, including sports, these court cases have served to empower victims of gender discrimination (Sommer, 1997). Additionally, Acosta and Carpenter (1996) noted an increase of sport offerings and sport participation for girls and women. For the past 19 years, participation opportunities for female athletes have continued to increase. In 1971, 294,015 girls participated in interscholastic sports. In 1972-73, that number more than doubled--to 817,073 and by 1977-78, that number grew to 2,083,040. Similar gains occurred in women's intercollegiate sports. In 1977-78, the year prior to Title IX mandatory compliance date, the number of sports offered to females was 5.61 per college. By 1988, that number grew to 7.31. In 1990, the average number of sports offered to women was 7.24; in 1992, 7.09; and in 1996, an all time high of 7.53 sports per college were offered. Sports offerings for women have continued to increase in light of Title IX.

Only recently have girls and women begun to respond to the clamor of gender discrimination in athletics. According to Carpenter and Acosta (1991) the call for reform in college athletics gives women a special opportunity to be more proactive. However, overcoming persuasive gender discrimination and other forms of athletic abuse will

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require collective efforts from both men and women (Naughton, 1998a; Sommer, 1997). These adverse efforts continue to threaten the participation of women athletic leadership positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996).

Gender Hiring Trends and Issues in Athletics

Prior to Title IX, the majority of sports programs were managed and coached by the same sex as their sports participants. Following the passage of Title IX, participation opportunities and sport offerings for girls and women grew at both the interscholastic and intercollegiate levels in the United States. Apart from these positive effects of Title IX, the negative effect was the demise of females in athletic leadership positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996). Because Title IX did not require that athletic programs remain segregated, most male and female athletic programs were consolidated. The power to control these joint programs was handed to the senior administrator, usually a male, thus diminishing the voice and authority of females holding athletic power positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996; Hasbrook, Hart, Mathes & True, 1990).

Acosta and Carpenter (1996) reported that in 1972, more than 90% of head athletic administrators in four-year intercollegiate programs who were overseeing women's programs, were female. By 1988, the number of women head athletic administrators had dropped to a mere 16.05%. Two years later, in 1990, women directed 21% of female sports programs. The percentage of administrative positions held by women dropped from 30.8 % to 27.8 % between 1990 and 1992. By 1996, female sports programs had dropped dramatically to 18.5% of its female athletic administrators. Table 1 represents the percentage of female athletic directors of women's sports programs from

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1972 through 1996 at all divisions of the NCAA. Table 2 provides the percentage of women's intercollegiate athletic programs lacking any female administrator at all divisions of the NCAA.

Table 1

Percentage of Female Head Athletic Directors of Women's Programs

	1996	1994	1992	1990	1988	1986	1984	1982	1980	1972
All Divisions	18.5	21.0	16.8	15.9	16.1	15.2	17.0	--	20.0	90+

	Female AD	Male AD
	1996	1996
All Divisions	18.5	81.5
Division I	08.8	91.2
Division II	16.7	83.3

Note. From "Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study-Nineteen-Year Update 1977-1996" by R. V. Acosta and L. J. Carpenter, 1996, Unpublished Document. "Reprinted with permission."

Table 2

Percentage of Women's Programs Lacking Any Female Administrator

	1996	1994	1992	1990	1988	1986	1984
All Divisions	23.9	24.4	27.8	30.3	32.5	31.9	31.6
Division I	7.9	9.9	14.6	21.8	25.6	23.4	21.4
Division II	38.5	44.7	38.8	39.9	33.3	34.1	36.9
Division III	27.5	21.5	31.9	32.8	37.9	38.3	36.9

Note. From "Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study-Nineteen-Year Update 1977-1996" by R. V. Acosta and L. J. Carpenter, 1996, Unpublished Document. "Reprinted with permission."

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In fact, Table 2 shows that 23.9% of four-year NCAA intercollegiate programs do not have the supervision of a female athletic director of any women's sports programs, thereby denying a female voice for their respective women's programs.

Carpenter and Acosta (1992) conducted a study of senior women athletic administrators to learn more about their career experiences and why most never sought a lateral or vertical job change. One major factor they discovered was that female intercollegiate athletic administrators do not take the same employment risks as their male counterparts. A questionnaire was sent to all National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) senior women's administrators with over ten years experience at their institutions. Of the respondents, over 13 percent never sought a job change, and 20 percent never contemplated a job change. The most frequently stated reasons for not having changed employment in any manner was their feelings of comfort on campus, and feelings that the job was challenging and rewarding. However, they indicated that the two major factors they would change about their current employment were low salaries and lack of authority. The worst aspects of their careers in coaching included: long hours, salary not reflective of the amount of time and work commitment, low external rewards, and sex discrimination. Other reasons for failing to make any career change laterally or vertically included burnout, fear of risk-taking in career move, discouragement with lack of openness of job search, and non-mobility of family. However, 99% of the senior women administrators stated that the best factors of their jobs outweighed the worst.

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The impact of Title IX has also affected the interscholastic arena. Maier (1989) conducted a study representing gender trends of athletic administrators from the California Interscholastic Federation--Southern Section (CIF-SS). This longitudinal study covered a thirteen-year period from 1975-1989. Consequently, the research found a dramatic decrease of female representation in athletic administration. Listed in Table 3 is the breakdown of gender representation of girls high school athletic administrators over the 13 years.

Table 3

Gender Representation of Girls Athletic Administrators

	FEMALES		MALES	
	N	%	N	%
1975-1976	202	67.56	97	32.44
1980-1981	165	48.39	176	51.61
1985-1986	136	37.57	226	62.43
1988-1989	114	32.85	233	67.15

Note. From "Thesis: Gender trends in the employment and assignment of coaches and athletic directors in the California Interscholastic Federation -- Southern Section 1975-1989" by Maier, K. "Reprinted with permission."

While opportunities for sport participation have increased for females, the profile of female coaches and athletic administrators has changed dramatically. During the early years of Title IX legislation, virtually all female teams were coached, officiated and administered by women (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996). The passage of Title IX integrated women's programs with men's under one administration; however, this administration was most often under the direction of male leadership (Smith & Ewing, 1992).

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Today, over 99% of the head coaches of men's teams are males. When Title IX was passed in 1972, more than 90% of the head coaches of women's teams were females (Sisley & Steigelman, 1994). Acosta and Carpenter (1996) noted that in 1990, the number of women coaching women dropped dramatically to 47.3%. Furthermore, the status of women as coaches increased only one percent in 1992 to 48.3%. In addition, they indicated that in the last ten years (1986-1996), the number of coaching jobs for women's teams increased by 812 positions. However, women were only able to obtain 181 of those positions while the remaining 631 went to men. Most notably, since the passage of Title IX, men not only dominate coaching positions for women's teams, but there has been no concurrent access of women into the coaching ranks of the men's teams.

Shown on Table 4 is the gradual demise of the percentage of women coaching women's teams at all divisions of the NCAA. In fact, Acosta and Carpenter found that only two percent of the NCAA head coaches of men's teams within their organization are females and most of them coaching combined teams (teams practicing together) such as swimming, cross country, and tennis.

In 1996, Acosta and Carpenter reported that 6,508 head coaching jobs existed for women's teams at the intercollegiate level, with women holding fewer than half--3,147 of those positions, despite the growth of sport offerings for women. Sisley and Steigelman (1994) assert that the lack of female coaches deprives female athletes of positive role models and creates a lack of women in athletic leadership positions since athletic directors are often promoted from coaching positions.

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Table 4

Percentage of Women Coaching Women's Teams--All Sports

	1996	1994	1992	1990	1988	1986	1984	1982	1980	1972
All Divisions	47.4	49.4	48.3	47.3	48.3	50.6	53.8	52.4	54.2	90+
Division I	47.5	46.9	46.6	44.2	43.8	45.5	49.9	--	--	--
Division II	41.9	45.4	42.3	44.0	45.7	46.8	52.2	--	--	--
Division III	51.3	53.6	52.6	51.8	53.3	57.2	58.8	--	--	--

Note. From "Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study-Nineteen-Year Update 1977-1996" by R. V. Acosta and L. J. Carpenter, 1996, Unpublished Document. "Reprinted with permission."

Blum (1994) reported that salary is one of the most important factors that affected the hiring of more coaches of women's sports programs. Prior to Title IX, female coaching positions and sports programs were under-funded compared to male sports programs. Blum notes that some colleges are giving women's athletic team coaches substantial raises. However, Naughton (1998b) in a study by The Chronicle of Higher Education, found that in the 1996-97 academic year, men's head coaches at a median institution earns an average salary of $80,000 while women's coaches earn an average of $50,000. Furthermore, men's coaches earned 43% more than women's coaches at the median institution. However, these discrepancies dealing with salary equity in college sports are being advocated into legal challenges under the anti-discrimination laws such as the Equal Pay Act and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

Phillip (1993) believes college athletics is a bastion of male domination. With the power in the hands of men, the number of male administrators, assistant administrators, and coaches of women's sports programs has increased dramatically. Men tend to move

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into women's sports programs, particularly when salaries of those jobs are higher than others available in the job market. Suddenly, women are experiencing unequal opportunity in salaries, administration and coaching. However, Stangl and Kane (1991) point out, that while it is important to increase the number of women in administrative positions; this in no way ensures that women's power in those positions will ever be equal to their male counterparts. At the same time, other researchers state that the declination of women in athletic leadership positions is due to role conflicts and a heavier academic work load than their male counterparts, which leads to burnout (Felder & Wishnietsky, 1990).

Delano (1990) and Nelson (1991) mention that overall racism, classicism and heterosexism play a major role in discrimination when hiring women. For example, women athletic leaders who are single are labeled as lesbians and those making the hiring decisions feel lesbian athletic leaders do not represent a proper public image. Consequently, homophobia also affects hiring decisions. Nelson suggest that to dispel myths and attitudinal barriers about the potential of female athletes and female athletic leaders, parents, teachers and society as a whole must be educated.

Grant and Curtis (1993) found that women have a better chance of becoming president of a NCAA institution than becoming the head athletic administrator of that institution. At Division I institutions, they found women holding 11 athletic director positions compared to 15 president positions. At the Division II level, 23 women were athletic directors and 27 held president positions. The Division III institutions have the largest numbers of females holding leadership positions; however, female presidents

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outnumber their athletic director colleagues, 69 to 65 respectively. Acosta and Carpenter (1996) found that the gender of the athletic director at the intercollegiate level would make a profound difference in the make up of the employment of female coaches of women's sports programs. Table 5 demonstrates the impact that the gender of the intercollegiate athletic director has on the percentage of female coaches employed to coach female sports at the intercollegiate level.

Table 5

Gender of Athletic Director versus Percent of Female Coaches

Sex of Athletic Director	Percent of Female Head Coaches for Women's Teams		
	1996	1994	1992
Male Athletic Director	45.6	47.4	46.4
Female Athletic Director	55.8	57.1	50.8

Note. From "Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study-Nineteen-Year Update 1977-1996" by V. R. Acosta and L. J. Carpenter, 1996, Unpublished Document. "Reprinted with permission."

State and federal legislation has attempted to remedy gender equity in education and athletics over the past 20 years, and athletic participation for females has increased tremendously as a result. However, the number of women in athletic leadership roles has declined throughout the country (Abney & Richey, 1992; Acosta & Carpenter, 1996).

Ethnic Minority Hiring Trends and Issues in Athletics

There has been much data collected on the lack of female representation in athletic leadership positions. For people of color, however, researchers have given limited attention to the issue of athletic leadership positions, with information nearly

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nonexistent (Abney & Richey, 1992; Acosta, 1986). Fifty years have passed since the integration of Blacks into professional sports, yet professional and collegiate administrative and coaching positions are still dominated by Caucasians. This is a reminder that racism may still exist in American sports (Brooks, Althouse, & Tucker, 1997).

Brooks, Althouse, and Tucker (1997) reported that in 1987, the Black Coaches Association (BCA) was established. In response to the vehement outcry of racism in collegiate and professional sport organizations, including the NCAA, the BCA addressed the issue of Black representation and influence in the collegiate coaching ranks. Coaches from high schools to colleges attended the first BCA Conference to voice their concerns over the lack of hiring coaches of color. Current coaches and former head coaches suggested that younger assistant coaches urge their head coaches to give them the opportunity to perform other duties, such as scouting, dealing with administration, and coaching in practice sessions. The BCA made it clear that their intention is not to seek special consideration when it comes to hiring; rather, they want equal consideration.

In Black Issues in Higher Education, Farrell (1994) reported that the low number of Blacks hired at top division schools troubles the NCAA. In 1987, the NCAA formed a special committee to make an effort to promote opportunities for people of color in coaching and athletic administration. Once this committee formed, the NCAA began to systematically collect and analyze employment data of African American athletic leadership patterns. This data revealed that in 1986-1987, there were only two African American athletic directors in the 105 Division I-A institutions. At the Division I-A

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level, there were three head football coaches, and about 25 Division I-A head basketball coaches at the 273 predominantly White. Furthermore, the NCAA reported that Blacks are continually underrepresented in coaching and athletic administrative positions. The subcommittee concluded that the situation was dismal and that much more needs to be done to recruit and develop Black athletic leaders. The NCAA panel found that Blacks hold 6.1% of all full-time administrative positions; however, only 4.4% Blacks hold athletic director, associate director, and assistant directors positions (Farrell, 1994).

The 1994 NCAA Division I Graduation Rate Report showed that African American student-athlete participation numbers increased to 15,119 (National Collegiate Athletic Association, 1995). In addition, Black Issues in Higher Education (Farrell, 1994) reported that from 1991 to 1993, there were 1,109 new head coach positions (excluding historically Black colleges) yet African Americans represented a mere 143 (12.9 %) of the new head coaches. Between 1991 and 1994, the number of assistant coaches increased by 2,394, but African Americans gained only 213 (9%) of those new positions. This data indicates that simply increasing the number of African American athletes did not influence the hiring trends of African Americans in coaching positions.

The 1997 Racial Report Card found Black coaches virtually shut out among head coaches at the 112 Division I-A football institutions with five. Furthermore, of 3,208 assistant football coaches 481 (15%) are Black, excluding those at historically Black institutions. According to Rudy Washington, executive director and Alex Wood, vice president of the BCA, found these results deplorable and appalling (Farrell, 1998). Greenlee (1998) reported that those making the decisions off the field remain

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overwhelmingly White. Particularly at Division I institutions where college athletic directors make up 9.1% Black men and 1% Black women. As for coaching, the 1997 season data revealed 7.2% Black head football coaches of 110 Division I schools and Head Basketball coaches accounted for 50 of 289 at the Division I level.

For women of color, the passage towards athletic leadership positions does not come without barriers. Abney and Richey (1992) reported that even with the passage of Title IX, stereotypes, social attitudes, ignorance, racism, and sexism still hampered women of color from participating in athletics.

Smith and Ewing (1992) reported that there has been a significant increase in athletic participation of African American females, compared to their Hispanic and Caucasian female counterparts, at selected interscholastic sports. Yet, data for their roles in athletic leadership is nearly nonexistent (Abney & Richey, 1992). Although research is scarce regarding athletic leadership positions for people of color, several noted researchers suggest that inaccessibility to higher educational opportunities and experience is what limits ethnic minorities' participation in athletic leadership positions (Acosta, 1986; Brooks, Althouse, & Tucker, 1997; De La Torre, 1996; Gregory, 1994).

State of California Legislation (Assembly Bill 1725) and California Community Colleges Affirmative Action Program

In 1983, the State of California enacted California Education Code Sections 200-264, which mandate that all individuals, regardless of their sex, shall be provided equal rights and opportunities in the educational institutions of the state. This legislation brought about some form of equitable opportunity for all women (BGCCC, 1989).

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For people of color, the impact of affirmative action is directly related to their waves of demographic growth throughout the State of California. By the early 1980s, the demographic revolution that would thrust them into the forefront of the majority by the year 2000 was evident. Furthermore, the Stindt study of 1985 became the focal point for the California Community Colleges as it revealed that 34% of the community college students were ethnic minorities, yet 85% of the faculty were Caucasians. These educational trend lines brought educators and politicians into a state of alarm (Gulassa, 1996).

The California legislature found it necessary for community colleges to adhere to affirmative action transformation based on the state's major demographic and diverse society. In March 1986, a citizen's commission working closely with a legislative joint committee produced a document entitled "Challenge of Change." This task force created revolutionary provisions and a multimillion-dollar increase in the community college budget to implement changes reflecting issues dealing with personnel and finance. This document became known as Assembly Bill (AB) 1725 (Gulassa, 1996).

On September 19, 1988, Governor George Deukmejian signed AB 1725 into law for the California community colleges. In AB 1725, the California legislature acknowledged the demographic, social and economic transformations in California. The legislature noted that community colleges are one of the focal points of this change. In noting the state's transformations, the legislature required districts and community colleges to comply with affirmative action statutes. Community colleges and their districts were required to update affirmative action plans to meet hiring goals to make

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faculty and staff more representative of the state's diversity through the Board of Governors, California Community Colleges (1989). Through AB 1725, the California State Legislature provided two goals for staff diversity: the short-term goal was to achieve a goal that 30% of all new hires be ethnic minorities during the 1992-93 fiscal year; and the long-term goal was to have a workforce in the community colleges that mirrored the demographic characteristics of the state's diverse population by the year 2005 (Sheehan, 1993).

The California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office (1997) reported that students enrolled in California community college closely mirrored the adult population in the State of California. In the California community colleges, the Caucasian population is 45% of all students, compared with 55% in the state population. The percentage of African Americans in the California community colleges is 8%, compared with 7% in the population. Latinos represent 23%, compared with 27% in the population, and Asians represent 13%, compared with 12% in the population. On the other hand, women make up 60% of the California community college student population, compared to 50% of the state population.

Although AB 1725 was adopted unanimously in 1988, the reluctance of certain districts to acknowledge the mandated changes has slowed the progress of the bill's full impact (Locke, 1992). Locke concedes that the number of underrepresented individuals hired in the community colleges in faculty and administrative positions increased to 28.4% in 1990-91. The anticipated future increase in this figure may be overly optimistic. Most of the underrepresented faculty and administrative members hired are

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not new faculty members to the system, they are being recruited from other community colleges within the system.

Proposition 209 (California Civil Rights Initiative)

In November 1996, through a California general election, Article I, Section 31 was added to the California Constitution by the passage of Proposition 209. Proposition 209, better known as the California Civil Rights Initiative, abolished affirmative action treatment based on race or sex in public employment, education, or contracting at the state and local levels (CNN News Bulletin, 1997). Opponents of Proposition 209 challenged its validity in federal court on the grounds that it violated the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment of the United States Constitution. However, the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals upheld Proposition 209, and the subsequent rejection of the United States Supreme Court to hear the case cleared the path for California to ban affirmative action programs (CCCCO, 1997). Thus, Vicini (1997) argues, California has become the first state to abolish the affirmative action programs that expanded equal opportunities for women and members of minority groups since the 1960s. Also, Corbett (1995) maintains the backlash on affirmative action and its daily visibility in the media has deepened the already challenging relations between California's ethnic and racial groups in employment and access to higher education.

Though the federal courts have held Proposition 209 constitutional, they have not ruled on its meaning and/or scope, thus allowing room for future court decisions. Nevertheless, it is particularly important that hiring and recruitment be approached with

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careful guidance. Regardless of this law, AB 1725 remains intact until an appellate court determines a violation in Propositions 209 (CCCCO, 1997).

Commission on Athletics (COA)

From 1950 through the early 1970s, the California Junior College Association (CJCA) governed intercollegiate athletics for men statewide through the Commission on Athletics (COA). During this same time period, women physical educators governed their own athletic programs regionally. However, in the early 1970s, with Title IX legislation developing nationally, a visionary group of college presidents and athletic administrators established a special committee to develop a state athletic code. Under the direction of State Commissioner Walter Rilliet, this committee designed an operating state athletic code that would include policies and procedures for all community college student-athletes to follow. In the early 1980s, the California community colleges became the first public institutions in the United States to consolidate men's and women's athletic programs (Jensen, et al., 1988).

The State Athletic Code was developed to enhance the viability, quality, and opportunity for women in athletics, in addition to promoting and ensuring academic progress, amateurism, ethical conduct, and equitable competition for all student athletes. Further, it is the responsibility of each institution to administer its program in compliance with the State Athletic Code and with regional conference policies and procedures. Through their conferences, colleges are given opportunities to provide input into the development of rules and regulations (Jensen, et al., 1988).

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The California Association of Community Colleges, formerly the CJCA, through its Commission on Athletics (COA) is authorized by the California Education Code to supervise the administration of the men's and women's intercollegiate athletic programs. In the California community colleges, 101 of the 107 community colleges have athletic programs and are members of the COA (California Community College Athletic Directory, 1994). Hence, the goals of the COA are to reaffirm that the role of athletics be an integral part of the educational programs.

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CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this longitudinal study was to explore the gender and ethnic representation of athletic leaders in the California Community Colleges during a nine-year period from 1988 through 1997.

Subject Selection

The subjects selected in this study were athletic administrators and head coaches in the 101 community colleges that belong to the Commission on Athletics (COA) representing the California community colleges (Appendix A). The community college subjects were individuals in athletic administration and head coaching positions as listed in the California Community College Athletic Directory for the years 1988 through 1997.

Instrumentation

The data was collected using a survey instrument that identified the gender and ethnic employment and assignment of athletic leadership positions, in the California Community Colleges, from 1988 through 1997. The survey, titled the "Equal Employment Opportunity Survey of California Community College Athletics Programs," was designed by Reyna Griselda Rosas (Appendix B). The purpose of the survey was to identify athletic administrators and head coaches by gender and ethnicity. The ethnic categories used were Asian/Pacific Islander, Black/African American (non-Hispanic),

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Caucasian (non-Hispanic), Native American, Latino and Other. Only those sports sanctioned by the COA for intercollegiate competition were surveyed to assess the gender and ethnicity of the head coach positions. The sanctioned men's sports for intercollegiate competition include baseball, basketball, cross-country, football, golf, soccer, swimming, tennis, track and field, volleyball, water polo, and wrestling. The sanctioned women's sports for intercollegiate competition include basketball, cross-country, golf, soccer, softball, swimming, tennis, track and field, volleyball, and water polo.

Data Collection

The Standardized Protocol for the Protection of Human Subjects at California State University, Long Beach, was filed and approval was obtained to proceed with the study. The researcher used the following steps for data collection:

1. The researcher contacted the office of the Commission on Athletics to secure the names and titles of athletic leaders through its state directory.

2. All information for this study was gathered by using the telephone interview procedures. The researcher contacted one and/or two athletic administrators (dependent on the structure of the athletic program) at each California community college COA member campus to secure the gender and ethnicity of all athletic coaches and administrators.

3. Prior to asking for specific data, the researcher gave the campus athletic administrators detailed information about the purpose of the study (Appendix C). Athletic administrators were assured that anonymity and confidentiality would be used in reporting the data from their community college. Names of the athletic directors and

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head coaches were not reported in this study. The data collected identified only the titles by gender (male and/or female) and ethnicity of the athletic directors and head coaches involved with the COA representing the California community colleges. In addition, sports sanctioned by the COA.

4. There were three follow-up calls made to all institutions unable to respond to the initial telephone contact.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows, version 7.5. The data for this study was obtained from both the California Community College Athletic Directory for the years 1988 through 1997 and the athletic administrator on each campus. The study included the ethnicity and gender of athletic directors and head coaches hired during each year from 1988 to 1997. Raw scores for each classification were entered into a spreadsheet and then converted into proportions population parameters for proportion (π) were obtained, rather than parameter estimate (ρ) because the entire population was measured, therefore no inferential statistics were needed.

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CHAPTER 4

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

A total of 101 California Community Colleges (CCC) were interviewed by telephone to determine the gender and ethnicity of all athletic administrators and head coaches. All 101 California Community College members of the Commission on Athletics (COA) responded to the survey and are represented in this study.

The gender and ethnicity of athletic directors and head coaches were recorded and tabulated using information gathered from the athletic administrator from each school for the years 1988-1997. Using SPSS for Windows, version 7.5, the researcher statistically analyzed the data. The results of these analyses are presented in Tables 6-16, and include the raw data, frequencies and proportion. The population parameter for proportion (π) rather than the parameter estimate (ρ) was used because all members of the population were measured.

All tables presented in this study reflect information from the California Community Colleges for the years 1988 through 1997. Table 6 shows the California Community Colleges sports sanctioned by the Commission on Athletics. The gender of athletic directors for each year is represented in Table 7. Table 8 illustrates the gender of head coaches of all sports programs. Table 9 displays the gender of head coaches of women's sports programs, and Table 10 represents the gender of head coaches of men's sports programs. The ethnic classification of the athletic directors is shown in Table 11.

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Table 12 identifies ethnicity of athletic directors by gender, and Table 13 shows Caucasian athletic directors versus Ethnic Minority athletic directors as a group. The ethnicity of head coaches of all sports programs is reported in Table 14. Table 15 reveals ethnicity of head coaches by gender, and Table 16 represents the head coaches that are Caucasians versus Ethnic Minorities as a group.

Sports Sanctioned by the California Community Colleges Commission on Athletics (COA)

As shown in Table 6, the proportion of women (494) holding athletic leadership positions in sports sanctioned by the COA was .431 during 1988-89, while the proportion of men (701) during the same period was .587. In 1989-90, the number of female participation opportunities (494) remained the same, although their proportion decreased to .415, the men's sports programs (695) dropped six positions, decreasing to a proportion of .585. In 1990-91, women were offered seven additional sports opportunities (501) for a proportion of .413, however, the men were offered 17 more sports programs (712), increasing their proportion to .587; reflecting the same proportion as 1988-89.

In the following year, 1991-92, females did not gain any opportunities, although their proportion dropped slightly to .411 due to men gaining five more sports (717) for a proportion of .589. Although males lost 72 sports offerings (645) in 1992-93, they still outnumbered women, with a proportion of .562, despite women gaining two sports (503) for a proportion of .438. In the academic year of 1993-94, the proportion of women increased to .441 in sports offerings (508), an increase of five sports, while male sports offerings (645) showed no growth, and dropped to a proportion of .559.

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Women's sports offerings (512) in 1994-95 increased by four positions for a proportion of .442; meanwhile male opportunities (646) also increased by one sport for the academic year with a proportion of .558. In the next year, 1995-96, women were offered 18 new sports (520) showing a proportion of .446. During this same time, the proportion of sports offered to men was .554 for a gain of one sport (647).

Table 6

Sports Sanctioned by the California Community Colleges Commission on Athletics

	Females		Males		Total Sport Offerings
Year	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	494	.413	701	.587	1,195
1989-90	494	.415	695	.585	1,189
1990-91	501	.413	712	.587	1,213
1991-92	501	.411	717	.589	1,218
1992-93	503	.438	645	.562	1,148
1993-94	508	.441	645	.559	1,153
1994-95	512	.442	646	.558	1,158
1995-96	520	.446	647	.551	1,167
1996-97	543	.455	651	.545	1,194
Totals	4,576	.430	6,059	.570	10,635

Note. It is evident that attempts have been made to increase sport offerings in order to come into compliance with Title IX. Nevertheless, there are more sport offerings for men than women.

Women saw their greatest increase in the 1996-97 school year with an increase of 23 sports (543) for a proportional total of .455. During this time, men gained four sports

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(651) as their proportion dropped slightly to .545 of the sports programs.

Overall, women's sports offerings have gradually increased over the nine-year period of this study. Their largest increase occurred in 1995-96 with 28 sports and 1996-97 with 23 sports. Unfortunately, women (543) did not reach an equitable plateau of sports offerings holding a proportion of .455 to the proportion of men's sports offerings (651) of .545 by 1996-97. This is noteworthy since female students at the California Community Colleges make up over 60% of the full-time student population (Nussbaum, 1997).

Gender of Athletic Administrators

As presented in Table 7, the proportion of women (21) holding athletic director positions was .188 in 1988-89, meanwhile the proportion of men (91) during the same time period was .812. In 1989-90, female administrators (27) increased to proportion of .225 with men increasing two positions (93) but decreasing in proportion to .775. In 1990-91, women increased one position (28) for a proportion of .228; men (95) gained two positions, yet their proportion decreased to .772.

In 1991-92, the number of female athletic directors (25) dropped by three positions for a total proportion of .212, at the same time, men (93) decreased two positions, yet their proportion increased to .788. The next year, 1992-93, the number of women athletic administrators (27) increased two positions for a proportion of .237, whereas men (87) dropped an all time high of six positions for a proportion of .763.

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However, in 1993-94, the number of women (26) decreased one position for a proportion of .228, while the number of men (88) increased one position for a proportion of .772. In the 1994-95 and 1995-96 years, both female (26) and male (89) athletic directors remained constant with a proportion of .226 and .774. For female administrators (30), the largest gain occurred during the 1996-97 academic year, with an increase of four positions for a proportion of .261 while number of male decreased to 85 positions for a total proportion of .739.

Table 7

Gender of Athletic Directors in the California Community Colleges

	Females		Males		Total Positions
Year	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	21	.188	91	.812	112
1989-90	27	.225	93	.775	120
1990-91	28	.228	95	.772	123
1991-92	25	.212	93	.788	118
1992-93	27	.237	87	.763	114
1993-94	26	.228	88	.772	114
1994-95	26	.226	89	.774	115
1995-96	26	.226	89	.774	115
1996-97	30	.261	85	.739	115
Totals	236	.226	810	.774	1,046

Note. Male athletic directors have dominated the administration arena in the COA all nine years.

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Overall, from 1988-89 through 1996-97, opportunities for female athletic directors increased by nine positions, while the number of male athletic directors (236) decreased by six positions. Despite of the observed changes, men (810) continue to dominate the athletic administration field, holding a proportion of .739 to .266 for females.

Gender of Head Coaches

Evidence in Table 8 shows that in the school year of 1988-89, the proportion of women (201) holding head coaching positions was .168, while the proportion of men (994) during the same time period was .832. Women (192) decreased to a proportion of .161 in 1989-90, losing nine positions, with male head coaches (997) gaining three positions for a proportion of .839. In 1990-91, women earned 20 coaching positions (212), resulting in a proportion gain of .175, although men (1,001) achieved four new positions, their proportion decreased slightly to .825.

In 1991-92, the proportion of female coaches (215) showed an increase of .177, with a gain of three positions, as for male head coaches (1,003), the proportion dropped slightly to .823, though they increased by two positions. Again, in 1992-93, females (232) experienced their largest increase: 17 head coaching positions for a proportion of .202, however, the men head coaches (916) decreased by an all-time high of 87 positions, dropping their to a proportion .798, although they overwhelmingly dominate the head coaching positions. In the academic year 1993-94, the proportion of women (237) increased to .206 in head coaching positions, while the number of male coaches (916) remained the same, their proportion decreased slightly to .794.

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Table 8

Gender of Head Coaches of All Sports Programs in the California Community Colleges

	Females		Males		Total Positions
Year	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	201	.168	994	.832	1,195
1989-90	192	.161	997	.839	1,189
1990-91	212	.175	1,001	.825	1,213
1991-92	215	.177	1,003	.823	1,218
1992-93	232	.202	916	.798	1,148
1993-94	237	.206	916	.794	1,153
1994-95	243	.210	915	.790	1,158
1995-96	249	.213	918	.787	1,167
1996-97	265	.222	929	.778	1,194
Totals	2,046	.192	8,589	.808	1,063

Note. Over the nine-year period, male coaches decreased by 65 positions, while women increased by 64 positions, yet women are underrepresented in coaching, holding an average proportion of .200 compared to the men's .800.

In 1994-95, women (243) were offered six new positions, increasing in proportion to .210, while men (915) dropped one position for a proportion of .790. In the ensuing year, 1995-96, the proportion of women (249) holding head coaching positions was .213, an increase of six new positions, while the proportion of men (918) during the same time period was .787. Women (265) were offered 16 new head coaching positions in 1996-97

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for a proportion of .213, although men (929) gained 11 positions, their proportion decreased to .778.

Over the nine-year period, it was apparent that women accepted head coaching opportunities afforded them. It is important to note that women continuously increased in head coaching positions throughout the nine years. Women had three excellent years of coaching growth; in 1990-91, 20 positions; 1992-93, 17 positions; and 1996-97, another 16 positions. Of 1,194 available positions throughout the nine years, women gained 64 positions while the men decreased by 65 positions. Regardless of male head coaches experiencing a decrease of 65 positions over the nine years, they continue to dominate the head coaching field, holding a proportion of .808 (8,589) to .192 (2,046) of 10,635 positions available.

Gender of Head Coaches of Women's Sports Programs

Table 9 represents women coaching women's sports programs. In 1988-89, the proportion of females (191) represented .387 of women's coaching in women's sports programs. Meanwhile, males (303) dominated coaching women's sport teams holding a proportion of .631 of 494 available positions. The following year, women (185) lost six positions and dropped to a proportion of .374 with men (309) increasing six position for a proportion of .626 of head coach positions of women's sports teams, in 1989-90. Entering the new decade, in 1990-91, women (198) regained thirteen positions, increasing to a proportion of .395, during the same year, men (303) decreased six positions for a total proportion of .605 of the head coaching positions of women's sports teams.

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In the 1991-92 school year, women coaches (202) of women's sports were limited to two positions for a proportion of .403; although males (299) decreased by four positions, including dropping their proportion to .597, they still dominate coaching female teams. By 1992-93, women (216) had their largest gain, during the academic year, with fourteen positions, increasing their proportion to .429, while their male colleagues (287) were cutback by 12 positions for a total proportion of .571. As slowly as males lost positions, women gained positions. In 1993-94, the growth of positions for females (223) increased to by six positions for a proportion of .439 at the same time, men (285) dropped two positions for a total of .561.

The 1994-95 academic year was not much better for the females coaching women's teams (227)--they gained four positions with a proportion of .443. At the same time, the number of male coaches of women's teams remained the same (285), although their proportion decreased to .557. In 1995-96, women (232) gained five additional positions with a proportion of .446, while men (288) had a proportion of .554, a growth of three positions. In the 1996-97 year, females (244) experiences their largest growth of 12 positions for a proportion of .449 during the same time period, males (299) had their largest gain of nine coaching positions for a proportion of .551.

As a whole, from 1988-89 through 1996-97, women coaching in the women's sports programs made some gains, however, men continue to dominate the women's sports programs coaching positions, controlling a proportion of over .550 to women's .450. In addition, women's sports programs gained 49 coaching opportunities over the nine years.

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Women gained 53 head coaching positions, while men lost four, in the women's sports programs.

Table 9

Gender of Head Coaches of Women's Sports Programs in the California Community Colleges

	Females		Males		Total Positions
Year	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	191	.387	303	.613	494
1989-90	185	.374	309	.626	494
1990-91	198	.395	303	.605	501
1991-92	202	.403	299	.597	504
1992-93	216	.429	287	.571	503
1993-94	223	.439	285	.561	508
1994-95	227	.433	285	.557	512
1995-96	232	.446	288	.551	520
1996-97	244	.449	299	.551	543
Totals	1,918	.419	2,658	.581	4,576

Note. Men control the coaching ranks in the women's sports programs, although women have continually gained positions over the nine-year period.

Furthermore, in 1988-89, women held 191 of the 494 head coach positions in the women's sports programs, where men held 303. During this time, men held a proportion of over .600 of the women's sports programs with women holding below .400. These data indicate that it is men that primarily control the women's sports programs. By the final year of the study, 1996-97, female head coaches of women's sports programs

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increased, holding 244 of 543 available positions, while men continue to hold the majority of head coach positions with 299. These results indicate women have slowly moved into the area of coaching their own gender, however, men continue to dominate the coaching ranks in the women's sports programs.

Gender of Head Coaches of Men's Sports Programs

Table 10 demonstrates the apparent lack of opportunities given to women coaching male sports programs. In 1988-89, women (10) held a meager proportion of .014 of coaching positions of male sports, while at the same time, the men's proportion was .986 (691). In 1989-90, females (7) represented a loss of three positions, dropping to a proportion of .010, with men (688) having full control of the male sports programs with a proportion of .099. The new decade, 1990-91, showed women (14) gaining seven coaching positions in the men's sports programs for a total proportion of .020. At the same time, men (698) gained ten more coaching positions, maintaining control with a proportion of .098.

In the following year, 1991-92, women (13) lost one position, dropping to a proportion of .018, while the men (704) continued to increase by six positions for a proportion of .98.2. In 1992-93, male coaches (629) decreased by 75 positions, but still held a proportion of .975 of the coaching positions. Meanwhile, women (16) gained a mere three positions, for an extremely low proportion of .025 of the available coaching positions. The following year, 1993-94, women (14) lost two positions, dropping to an even lower proportion of .022. At the same time, men (631) gained two more positions increasing their proportion to .978 of the coaching positions for men's sports programs.

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Table 10

Gender of Head Coaches of Men's Sports Programs in the California Community Colleges

	Females		Males		Total Positions
Year	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	10	014	691	.986	701
1989-90	07	.010	688	.990	695
1990-91	14	.020	698	.980	712
1991-92	13	018	704	.982	717
1992-93	16	.025	629	.95	645
1993-94	14	.022	631	.978	645
1994-95	16	.025	630	.975	646
1995-96	17	.026	630	.974	647
1996-97	21	.032	630	.968	651
Totals	128	021	5,931	.979	6,059

Note. Over the nine-year study, it remains that female coaches are underrepresented with in the men's sports programs holding an average proportion of .021 (128).

In 1994-95, women (16) gained two positions for a scarce proportion of .025, as men (630) decreased by one position, but maintaining control of the men's sports programs with a proportion of .975. In 1995-96, women (17) gained one position increasing to a proportion of .026, while the number of male coaches (630) remained the same, although their proportion decreased to .974. By 1996-97, women (21) gained four Coaching positions slightly increasing their proportion to .032. As for male coaches of

the men's sports programs, despite their numbers remaining constant holding 630 positions, their proportion barely decreased to .968.

During the years of 1988 through 1997, 50 head coaching positions were dropped from the men's sports programs. Although women only earned 11 additional opportunities to coach in the men's sports programs throughout the nine years.

In 1988-89, women held 10 of 701 head coach positions in the men's sports programs. By 1996-97, women held 21 of 651 head coaching positions in the men's sports programs. Despite the loss of 50 male sports programs, women made minimal gains in the coaching ranks of the men's sports programs. It is evident that men dominate their respective sports programs by holding 630 of the 651 positions available by the end of the nine-year study.

Athletic Administrators by Ethnic Classification

Table 11 figures show Caucasians (95) holding a proportion of .848 of the 112 positions in 1988-89. The remaining proportions consisted of Blacks (8) at .071, followed by Latinos (6) at .054, Native Americans (2) at .018, and Asians (1) held a mere proportion of .009 of all athletic director positions. In the 1989-90 academic year, the proportion of Caucasians (102) holding athletic leadership positions, increased to .850 of the 120 positions. On the other hand, Blacks (10) increased by two positions with a proportion of .083, while Latinos (5) dropped one position for a proportion of .042. During this time, Native Americans (2) gained no positions yet increased ever so slightly to a proportion of .017, as did the Asian (1) athletic director with .008. Evidence shows that 1990-91 was the highest gain of athletic director positions for Caucasians (107), who

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control the athletic programs with a proportion of .870 of the 123 athletic directorship positions. Blacks decreased from 10 positions to nine, and dipping to a proportion of .073. Asians (3) acquired two positions, reaching a proportion of .024 during that year. On the other side, both Latinos (2) and Native Americans (2) dropped to a scant .016 of the athletic director positions.

The 1991-92 academic year, survey results illustrate that despite losing five positions, Caucasians (102) still maintained dominance in athletic administration by occupying a proportion of .864 of 118 positions. At the same time, Blacks (7) lost two positions, decreasing to a proportion of .059, while Latinos (4) and Asians (4) each retained a proportion of .034 of these positions. Native Americans struggled to an insignificant proportion of .008, the equivalence of one position. For the 1992-93 school year, Caucasians (91) saw a substantial drop of eleven positions to a proportion of .798 of 114 athletic administrators, maintaining these numbers until 1994-95. Asians (8) and Blacks (8) each held a proportion of .070 of these athletic administration positions, although, only Blacks (8) maintained these numbers in the ensuing year of 1993-94. On the other hand, Latinos (7) obtained three new positions, moving to their proportion to .061 and remained there until 1996-97. Meanwhile, the Native Americans lost their one position in athletic administration in the California community colleges, until 1996-97. In 1993-94, Asians (7) were the only ethnic group to lose any positions, one; yet they were able to secure a proportion of .061 of the 114 athletic administrators through 1996-97. In addition, other ethnic groups (1) held .002 of athletic director positions through 1994-95; thereafter, they played no leadership roles throughout the study.

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Table 11

Athletic Director Positions by Ethnic Classification in the California Community Colleges

Ethnicity	Asian		Black		Caucasian		Native American		Latino		Other		Total
Year	f	π	f	π	f	π	f	π	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	1	009	8	.071	95	848	2	018	6	054	0	000	112
1989-90	1	008	10	.083	102	850	2	017	5	042	0	000	120
1990-91	3	024	9	.073	107	870	2	016	2	016	0	000	123
1991-92	4	034	7	.059	102	864	1	008	4	.334	0	000	118
1992-93	8	.070	8	.070	91	798	0	000	7	.061	0	000	114
1993-94	7	.061	8	.070	91	798	0	000	7	.061	1	009	114
1994-95	7	061	9	.078	91	791	0	000	7	.061	1	009	115
1995-96	7	.061	8	.070	93	809	0	000	7	.061	0	000	115
1996-97	7	.061	7	.061	92	800	1	009	8	.070	0	000	115
Total	45	043	74	.071	864	825	8	080	53	5.1	2	020	1046

Note. Throughout the nine-year study, only two ethnic groups achieved some success in gaining positions, Asians with six positions and Latinos with two positions.

In 1994-95, Caucasians (91) held to a steady proportion of .791 of 115 athletic director positions. Blacks (9) increased by one position moving to a proportion of .078. The 1995-96 academic year Caucasians (93) were the only group with a gain of two positions, increasing to a proportion of .809 of the 115 athletic directors. Blacks decreased by one position (8) to a proportion of .070. The 1996-97 year saw a drop of one position for Caucasians (92) with a proportion of .800 of 115 positions, and Blacks (7) to .061. On the other hand, Latinos (8) regained one position, after four years of being stagnant and their proportion rose to .070 of the athletic director positions, while Native Americans gained one position for a proportion of .009.

In summation, the results signify that there have been few gains for ethnic minorities in athletic administration positions over the nine-year period. Caucasians achieved dominance in athletic director positions, while they lost three positions over the nine-year period; they held 93 of the 115 positions available. Asians had the largest gain of any ethnic group in athletic administration with six, for a total of 7 athletic director positions. Latinos held 6 athletic director positions and increased by two positions for a total of 8 positions by the end of the study. Blacks started with eight athletic directors and ended up with 7 positions. Native Americans lost one position yet were able to retain one position over the nine year period.

Gender of Athletic Administrators by Ethnic Classification

In Table 12, a comparison was performed based on the ethnicity of the athletic director and his or her gender. The data were collapsed across the nine reporting years. The same subject is counted for each year they participated in the study. The breakdown

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among gender and ethnicity of athletic administrators found the proportion of Asian females (36) was .800 compared to Asian males (9) with a proportion of .200. Most Black administrators were male (71), with a proportion of .955, while their female counterparts (3) were underrepresented with a proportion of .041. Caucasian males (684) overwhelmingly dominated their female counterparts (180) with a proportion of .792 compared to .208.

Table 12

Gender of Athletic Administrators by Ethnic Classification in the California Community Colleges

	Females		Males		Total Positions
Ethnicity	f	π	f	π	f
Asian	36	.800	9	.200	45
Black	3	.041	71	.959	74
Caucasian	180	.208	684	.792	864
Native American	0	.000	8	1.000	8
Latino	17	.321	36	.679	53
Other	0	.000	2	1.000	2
Total	236	.226	810	.774	1,046

Note. With the exception of Asian female athletic directors, men control the administration of athletics in the COA.

Native American women have never held any athletic administrator positions; their male counterparts held the eight positions for a proportion of 1.00. Latino women (17) held a proportion of .321, of the athletic director positions with the Latino men (36) holding

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.679 of the proportion. All other ethnic groups were males (2) who held a proportion of 1.00 of the athletic administration positions.

Overall, the data in Table 12 reveal women of color, with the exception of Asians, are underrepresented in the area of athletic administration. Men of color have prevailed over their female counterparts holding 126 athletic director positions to 56. Caucasian males outnumber their female counterparts 684 to 180 positions. Moreover, Caucasian male and female athletic directors dominate these positions against all other ethnic groups with 864 of 1,046.

Caucasian Athletic Directors versus Ethnic Minority Athletic Directors

Table 13 represents the proportion of Caucasian athletic director s versus ethnic minority athletic directors in the California Community Colleges belonging to the COA. In 1988-89, the proportion of people of color (17) holding athletic director positions in was .152, while the proportion of Caucasians (95) during the same time period was .844. In 1989-90, people of color (18) by rose one position, with their proportion decreasing to .150 at the same time as Caucasians (120) increased seven positions, for a proportion of .850 of the 120 available positions.

In 1990-91, people of color (16) had a loss of two athletic director positions, with their proportion decreasing to.130. During the same time period, Caucasians (107) gained five more for a proportion increase of .870 of 123 athletic director positions available. During the academic year of 1991-92, people of color (16) made no gain in the number of athletic director positions, although they had a slight proportional increase to .136. While Caucasians (102) had a decrease of five positions, yet hold .864 of 118

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athletic director positions. In 1992-93, people of color (23) gained seven athletic director positions for a proportion of .202. In contrast, the number of Caucasians (91) decreased by eleven positions for a proportion of .798 of 114 available positions. There were no changes in the hiring of people of color and Caucasians in 1993-94. People of color (24) gained one athletic director position in 1994-95, increasing their proportion to .209.

Table 13

Caucasian Athletic Directors versus Ethnic Minority Athletic Directors in the California Community Colleges

	Caucasians		Ethnic Minorities		Total Positions
Year	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	95	.844	17	.152	112
1989-90	102	.850	18	.150	120
1990-91	107	.870	16	.130	123
1991-92	102	.864	16	.136	118
1992-93	91	.798	23	.202	114
1993-94	91	.798	23	.202	114
1994-95	91	.791	24	.209	115
1995-96	93	.809	22	.191	115
1996-97	92	.800	23	.200	115
Totals	864	.825	182	.175	1,046

Note. Ethnic minorities are extremely underrepresented in athletic director positions.

During the same time period, the number of Caucasian athletic directors (91) remained the same, although their proportion slightly decreased to .791. By 1995-96, the number

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of Caucasian athletic directors (93) increased two positions for a proportion of .809. While people of color (22) decreased two positions for a proportion of .191 of 115 available positions. The 1996-97 school year, people of color (23) gained one position for a proportion increase of .200 of the athletic director positions. Meanwhile, Caucasians (92) experienced a one position decrease yet held a proportion of .800 of the 115 available positions of athletic director.

The statistics in Table 13 disclose that Caucasians hold 92 of 115 athletic director positions; by far outnumbering people of color, where there held 23 positions by the end of the nine-year period. Although the proportion of hiring trends has fluctuated slightly over the years in this study, few changes have occurred in the hiring of ethnic minorities in the California community colleges.

Head Coaches by Ethnic Classification

Table 14 illustrates the ethnicity of head coaches of all sports programs in the California Community Colleges belonging to the COA. The proportion of Caucasians (984) holding head coaching positions in the COA was .823 during 1988-89, while the proportion of Blacks (92) followed at a distant .077. Latino head coaches (76) held a proportion of .064, with Asians (28) at .023 and Native Americans (15) holding a mere .013 of the head coaches.

In 1989-90, the number of Caucasian head coaches (969) decreased by 15 positions, accounting for a proportion of .815. During that same time, Blacks head coaches (86) lost six positions, accounting for a proportion of .072; Latinos (82) gained six positions for .069 and Asians (34) held .029. Native American head coaches (17) lost

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two positions, holding a proportion of .014; other ethnic groups gained one position for a mere proportion of .001 of all head coach positions.

Caucasians (956) experienced the loss of 13 head coaching positions in 1990-91 but still dominated holding a proportion of .788. Latinos (99) occupied 13 new positions, advancing to a proportion of .082; Blacks (94) gained eight head coaching positions and rose to .077; and Asians (40) increased by six positions to .033. Native Americans (18) remained low, gaining only one position, for a proportion of .015, and the other ethnic groups (6) slightly increased by five positions to scant .005.

In 1991-92, Caucasians (976) proportion of head coaches was .801, an increase of 20 new head coach positions from the previous year. Latinos (94) dropped lost five positions for a proportion of .077; Blacks (90) saw a slight decrease of four head coaching positions at .074. Asians (33) declined by seven positions, to a proportion of .027; Native Americans (16) showed a decrease of two positions for .013; other ethnic groups (9) increased three positions to .007.

In 1992-93, Caucasians (927) saw a dramatic decrease of 49 head coaching positions; yet, they still remained in control holding a proportion of .807 of 1,148. Blacks (99) represent a proportion of .086 with an increase of five positions, while Latinos (76) lost 14 head coaching positions and declined to .066. Asians (31) dropped to a low proportion of .025 with a loss of two positions. Noteworthy is the fact that Native Americans (8) had a decrease of eight head coaching positions, one half from the previous year, dropping to a mere proportion of .007, and remained constant until

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1994-95. In addition, other ethnic groups (5) also dropped four positions to a scant proportion of .004 until the 1994-95 school year.

The 1993-94 year saw the number of Caucasian (943) head coaches increase by 16 positions for a proportion of .818. During the same time period, Blacks (100) showed a one position gain for .087; Latinos (70) lost six positions for .061 and Asians (29) declined by two positions holding a proportion of .025 of the head coach positions.

The 1994-95 academic year saw a fluctuation of head coach positions for all ethnic groups. Caucasians (944) experienced an increase of three positions for a proportion of .815. Blacks (97) slightly decreased to a proportion of .084, losing three coaching jobs; Latinos (78) obtained eight new head coaching positions, going to .067; and Asians (30) stepped up ever so slightly, for a proportion of .026. Native American s (6) lost two head coaching positions, leaving them with a meager proportion of .005, and remained stagnant until 1996-97; other ethnic groups (3) dipped to an extremely low .003 of all head coach positions through 1996-97.

In 1995-96, Caucasians (942) lost two positions, yet maintained control of head coaching positions with a proportion of .807. Blacks (100) regained three positions for .086 of the head coach positions; Latinos (84) obtained six new head coaching positions for .072; with Asians (32) slightly increasing two positions to .027. Caucasians (960) experienced their largest gain of head coaching positions with 18 positions, in 1996-97 for a proportion of .804. Blacks (102) slightly increased to a proportion of .085, Latinos (89) gained five for .075, and Native Americans (5) losing one position for .004 of all head coaching positions.

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Table 14

Head Coach Positions by Ethnic Classification in the California Community Colleges

Ethnicity	Asian		Black		Caucasian		Native American		Latino		Other		Total
Year	f	π	f	π	f	π	f	π	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	28	.023	92	.077	984	.823	15	.013	76	.064	0	.000	1,195
1989-90	34	.029	86	.072	969	.815	17	.014	82	.069	1	.001	1,189
1990-91	40	.033	94	.077	956	.788	18	.015	99	.082	6	.005	1,213
1991-92	33	.027	90	.074	976	.801	16	.013	94	.077	9	.007	1,218
1992-93	31	.027	99	.086	927	.807	8	.007	76	.066	5	.004	1,148
1993-94	29	.025	100	.087	943	.818	8	.007	70	.061	5	.004	1,153
1994-95	30	.026	97	.084	944	.815	6	.005	78	.067	3	.003	1,158
1995-96	32	.027	100	.086	942	.807	6	.005	84	.072	3	.003	1,167
1996-97	35	.029	102	.085	960	.804	5	.004	89	.075	3	.003	1,194
Total	292	.027	860	.081	8,601	.809	99	.009	748	.070	35	.003	10,635

Note. Throughout the nine-year period, Caucasians dominated head-coaching ranks in the California Community Colleges Commission on Athletics.

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From 1988 through 1997, all ethnic groups experienced some change in the head coaching positions. Caucasians had their largest loss of 49 positions in 1992-93. By the end of the nine-year period, they regained 23 positions, maintaining domination in the head coaching ranks holding 960 positions. Blacks obtained 10 positions over the nine-year period for a total 102 of the head coaching positions. The highest number of head coaches for Latinos was in 1990-91 where they gained 13 positions; but eventually they lost 10 of these by the end of 1997 for a final tally of 89 positions. The Asians' best year for head coaching attainment was in 1990-91 when they gained six positions, but these slowly disappeared over the next three years. By the end of 1997, Asians accumulated six new head coach positions over the nine years, holding a low 35 of 1,194 positions available. Native Americans had the greatest loss of any ethnic group of color with 10 positions over the nine-year period, holding a mere 5 positions. While other ethnic groups gained three head coaching positions, barely holding 3 positions in the last three years of the study

Gender of Head Coaches by Ethnic Classification

Table 15 interprets the comparison based on the gender of the head coach and his or her ethnicity. The data were collapsed across the nine reporting years. Therefore, the same subjects are counted for each year they participated in the survey. As shown on Table 15, the statistics reveal significant differences the gender and ethnicity of the head coaches in the California community colleges. Further, Table 15 displays that Asian male head coaches (211) are overrepresented holding a proportion of .72.3 compared to female Asian counterparts (81) with .277. Black women (74) are also underrepresented

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with a proportion of .086 as compared to .914 of Black male head coaches (786). The proportion of Caucasian male head coaches (6813) is .792 compared to.208 for their female colleagues (1788). Native American female head coaches (5) are nearly nonexistent with a mere proportion of .051 compared to .949 held by Native American men (94). Latino women head coaches (96) trail their male counterparts (652), holding only a proportion of .128 to .872. Other ethnic groups show female head coaches (2) well underrepresented at a proportion of .057 compared to their male counterparts (33) at .943.

Table 15

Gender of Head Coaches by Ethnic Classification in the California Community Colleges

	Females		Males		Total Positions
Ethnicity	f	π	f	π	f
Asian	81	.277	211	.723	292
Black	74	.086	786	.914	860
Caucasian	1,788	.208	6,813	.792	8,601
Native American	5	.051	94	.949	99
Latino	96	.128	652	.872	748
Other	2	.057	33	.943	35
Total	2,046	.192	8,589	.808	10,635

Note. All women of color are underrepresented as head coaches in the COA.

Overall, the data reveals that all women are underrepresented in head coaching positions. However, Caucasian males and females dominate the head coaching ranks in the California community colleges.

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Caucasian Head Coaches versus Ethnic Minority Head Coaches

Table 16 represents the overall ethnic breakdown of head coaches in the California Community Colleges. In 1988-89, the proportion of Caucasians (984) holding head coaching assignments was .823, while the proportion of ethnic minorities(211) during the same time period was .177. In 1989-90, the number of Caucasians (969) decreased by 15 head coaching positions, dropping their proportion to .815. For ethnic minorities (220), they gained nine positions, increasing their proportion to .185 during the same time period. Caucasians (956) continued to lose positions, 13 in 1990-91, yet still maintained dominance in head coaching jobs with a proportion of .788. Meanwhile, ethnic minority groups (257) experienced their largest gain of 37 positions for .212 of head coaching assignments.

In 1991-92, Caucasians (976) regained 20 new head coach positions for a proportion of .801, while ethnic minorities (242) encountered a loss of 15 head coaching assignments for a proportion of .199. Caucasians (929) experienced their largest loss of 47 head coach positions in 1992-93 for a proportion of .809 and ethnic minorities (219) were dropped of 23 for a proportion of .191. The ensuing year, 1993-94, Caucasians (941) were offered 12 head coach positions, increasing their proportion to .816; however, ethnic minorities (212) were confronted with another decrease of seven positions dropping their proportion to .184

In the following year, 1994-95, ethnic minorities (214) reestablished two new coaching assignments for a proportion of .185. Although, Caucasians (944) gained three jobs their proportion decreased slightly to .815. The next year, 1995-96, people of color

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(225) were offered eleven positions, increasing their proportion to .193, whereas Caucasians (942) lost two positions decreasing their proportion .807. The final year of the study, 1996-97, Caucasians (960) gained 18 additional positions increasing their proportion to .804. That same year, ethnic minorities (234) achieved nine positions for .196.

Table 16

Caucasian Head Coaches versus Ethnic Minority Head Coaches in the California Community Colleges

	Caucasians		Ethnic Minorities		Total Positions
Year	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	984	.823	211	.177	1,195
1989-90	969	.815	220	.185	1,189
1990-91	956	.788	257	.212	1,213
1991-92	976	.801	242	.199	1,218
1992-93	929	.809	219	.191	1,148
1993-94	941	.816	212	.184	1,153
1994-95	944	.815	214	.185	1,158
1995-96	942	.807	225	.193	1,167
1996-97	960	.804	234	.196	1,194
Totals	8,601	.809	2,034	.191	10,635

Note. The greatest gain for ethnic minorities occurred in 1990-91 where they gained 37 head coach positions.

In summary, during the nine-year study, it is evident from the data that ethnic minority groups gained 23 head coaching positions, while Caucasians lost 24 coaching positions. Nonetheless, Caucasians dominate ethnic minorities in head coaching positions, where they hold 960 of 1194 over the nine-year observation.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study investigated the hiring trends of athletic leadership positions in the California community colleges, belonging to the Commission on Athletics (COA), from 1988 through 1997. The Equal Employment Opportunity Survey was utilized to examine the proportion of change in assignment of athletic directors and head coaches. Population parameters were obtained, because all members of the population were measured, therefore no inferential statistics were needed. The discussion of the results, as well as, the conclusions and recommendations are the focus of this chapter.

Summary of the Study

This study was a significant nine-year longitudinal research dealing with opportunities for women and people of color to represent the prestigious California community colleges in athletic leadership positions. The California community colleges represent the most diverse student population in the world. This magnanimous diverse post-secondary system encourages academic opportunity for over 1.5 million students yearly and athletic competition in 22 (12 men's teams and 10 women's teams) sports for over 23,000 student-athletes statewide (California Community College Athletic Directory [CCCAD], 1996).

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However, athletic leadership opportunities for women and people of color are nearly non-existent. This research study provided a solid foundation for the impact on affirmative action and the hiring numbers of women and people of color entering the field of athletic leadership. The growth of underrepresented populations in the State of California has created an influx of demographic challenges. These demographic changes have caused state legislators to set goals and objectives to meet these challenging needs. The hiring of qualified professional women and people of color in athletic leadership positions is essential to provide equity for women and people of color, as well as to develop positive role models to reflect California's demographic changes.

The California community college system is known as the largest and most diverse in the world with over 107 college campuses and 1.5 million students. Of the 107 campuses, 101 belong to the Commission on Athletics, which host intercollegiate athletics, where over 23,000 student-athletes enjoy the opportunities of sport. Athletic competition in the California community colleges is only statewide making it especially interesting to study this unique complex system (CCCAD, 1996). Moreover, no studies have ever been conducted on the California community college athletic programs with respect to diversity and equity for women and people of color regarding athletic leadership positions.

The literature reveals that legislation and court decisions have played major roles in the opportunities for women and people of color to enjoy the benefits of intercollegiate athletics. Title VI and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the 1972 Higher Education Guidelines provided breakthrough legislation asserting fair hiring practices with application to any educational institutions receiving federal funding. However, it is

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apparent from this study that underrepresented groups have not prospered in leadership positions. Even though, several federal and state mandates were enacted to prevent discrimination in employment.

Particular to this study, the State of California mandated legislation to govern affirmative action, including the California Education Code: Sections 200-264 and California Government Code: Sections 11135-11139-5; to protect the equal rights and opportunities of all individuals. However, the opportunity for employment and diversity of women and people of color has not impacted the California community colleges. Therefore, in 1988, California Assembly Bill 1725 was adopted to integrate equitable recruitment and hiring practices in the California Community College System for underrepresented groups (BGCCC, 1989).

Despite the Federal and State legislative efforts, California community college athletic programs have long been associated with White male administration. Reflecting on the years prior to the 1972 passage of Title IX, women administered and coached women's collegiate athletic programs, holding 90% of all positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996). With the inception of Title IX, men took a major role in the leadership of women's athletic programs. Therefore, while Title IX allowed for a dramatic increase of sport opportunities for girls and women at the interscholastic and intercollegiate levels, it also became the demise of administrative and coaching opportunities for women leaders.

Meanwhile, participation in athletics for people of color continues to increase, yet there are still uneven playing fields for people of color in athletic leadership positions at all intercollegiate levels. Thus, opportunities for people of color, remain uneven and unequal compared to their White counterparts (Farrell, 1998).

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Purposes

The purposes of this study were as follows:

1. To report the sports offerings sanctioned by the COA to determine Title IX compliance for the years 1988 through 1997.

2. To determine the significant proportion in the hiring trends of women in athletic leadership positions for the years 1988 through 1997.

3. To determine the significant proportion in the hiring trends of ethnic minority athletic leadership positions for the years 1988 through 1997.

4. To determine the significant proportion of women of color compared to men of color in athletic leadership positions for the years 1988 through 1997.

5. To determine the significant proportion of Caucasians versus ethnic minorities in athletic leadership positions for the years 1988 through 1997.

Methodology

This was a descriptive survey research. The study included all 101 California community colleges holding membership to the COA and responded to the survey that included questions about the sports offered, the gender and ethnicity of the athletic directors and head coaches. The purpose was to determine the hiring trends over a nine-year period, from 1988 through 1997.

Findings

The key findings related to the research questions proposed in this study are summarized as follows:

1. Sport offerings for women in the California community colleges increased ever so slightly over the nine-year period. The California community colleges reported a

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proportion of .413 of all sports offered to women in 1988-89. By 1996-97, the proportion of sports offerings for women was .455. The reasoning for reporting this section of athletics is to review coaching opportunities for women, particularly, since women are given less opportunity to coach in the men's sports programs, as this study will showed. Interestingly, the literature revealed that the California community college system's student population is 60% full-time female (Nussbaum, 1997). Yet, these data indicates sport offerings in the California community colleges are out of compliance as it applies to Title IX and the Office of Civil Rights.

2. In athletic administration, women held a proportion of .188 of the athletic director positions in 1988-89. By 1996-97, women went up to an all-time high, proportion of .261 a very positive proportional increase from 1988. However, today men still overwhelmingly hold a proportion of .739 of all athletic director positions. These figures unfortunately are low compared to data prior to Title IX (1972) when women held over 90% of the athletic programs (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996).

3. It is evident that the impact of Title IX has affected all coaching opportunities for women in the in the California community colleges. These statistical proportions showed that gains occurred for women coaches of all sports programs, with 64 positions over the nine-year period, although the proportions are extremely limited. At the beginning of this longitudinal study, dating back to 1988-89, women held a proportion of .168 of all head coach positions. By the end of the study in 1996-97, women moved up to a proportion of .222 of the positions. For women coaches, it can easily be implied that the reflection of the gender of the administration reflects the gender of the coaching staff. In 1996-97, male administrators held a proportion of .739, while male coaches held a

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proportion of .778. These statistics strongly indicates the process of Kanter's theory of homologous reproduction, in which the dominant group reproduces its own self-image.

4. The statistics indicates women coaches of women's sports programs made no significant proportional gains over the nine-year period. In 1988-89, women coached a proportion of .387 of the women's sports programs at the California community colleges. In 1996-97, women increased to a total of .449 of head coaching positions for women sports programs. This statistic was slightly below the national four-year college average of 47.4%. Yet, males still occupy the majority of coaching positions of women's sport programs with a proportion of .545 by the end of the 1997 academic year.

5. The data indicates no significant proportional gains for women coaching in the men's sports programs. Women coaching in the men's sports programs are nearly nonexistent in the California community colleges. In1988-89 women coached a scarce proportion of .014, whereas males controlled with a proportion of .986 of the coaching positions of men's sports programs. Meanwhile in 1996-97, there was little growth for women as they increased to proportion of .032 with men controlling the men's sports programs at 968. Most of the women in the men's sports programs coached combined sports such as swimming, cross-country, or golf. It is evident that women are given fewer opportunities to coach in the men's sports programs at the California community colleges over the nine-year period.

6. For each ethnic group in athletic director positions, the data indicates no significant proportional gains for any group over the nine years. Breaking down the ethnicity of the athletic directors in 1988-89, Caucasians held the majority of athletic director positions with a proportion of .848, followed by African Americans at .071;

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Latinos .054; Native Americans..018, while Asians at .009 were least represented of these athletic leadership positions. By 1996-97, Caucasians still overwhelmingly dominated the athletic director positions with a proportion of .800. Latinos surpassed Blacks with a proportion of .070; meantime Asians increased in positions and Blacks decreased thus both holding an equal proportion .061, while Native American dropped to an extremely low representation of .009.

7. The ethnic breakdown among female and male athletic directors found significant differences over the nine-year period. Asian females had a higher proportional representation compared to their male counterparts at .80 to .20. Black males have more representation than their female counterparts with a proportion of .959 to .041. Caucasian males dominated their female counterparts by holding a proportion of .792 to .208 of the athletic director positions. However low, Native American males and other male ethnic groups held 100% of positions, while their respective female counterparts held no positions throughout the nine-year research. Latino males were represented with .679, while Latino women held .321 of the available positions. These results indicate male dominance when comparing the gender and ethnicity of the athletic director positions with the exception of the Asian female group.

8. This study showed no significant gains in the proportion of ethnic minority athletic directors compared to the proportion of Caucasian athletic directors. Breaking down the proportion of athletic directors of color is even more discouraging than for women athletic directors. In 1988-89, ethnic minorities held .152 of the athletic director positions, while Caucasians held .844. Nine years later, in 1996-97, ethnic minorities held .20 of all athletic director positions with Caucasians holding .80. These data

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indicates that while opportunities for ethnic minorities in athletic leadership positions have improved, they still remain scarce. More discouraging is that the California community colleges still lack in diversity in athletic leadership positions, with Caucasians dominating these positions throughout the nine-year period.

9. There were no significant proportional gains in the hiring trends of ethnic minority head coaches of all sports over the nine-year period. From 1988 through 1997, Caucasians held a proportion of .804 of the head coaching positions; Blacks were a distant second having gained .008 for a total of .085, followed by Latinos, who gained .011 for a total .075. Asians gained a mere proportion of .006, accounting for .029 of head coaching positions, whereas Native Americans dropped from .013 to .004, with other ethnic groups earning a total of .003 of all head coach positions over the nine-year period.

10. The results for female and male head coaches of color indicated significant proportional differences when the data were collapsed across the nine reporting years. The proportion of all males holding head coach positions throughout the study was .808. The breakdown indicated Asian males when compared to Asian females held .723 of the head coach positions; Black males held .914 to their female counterparts at .086; Caucasian males held .792 with Caucasian females holding only .208. Native American males dominated their female counterparts with a proportion of .949 to .051. Latino males held .872, while their female counterparts held .128. The other ethnic groups revealed that males held .943 compared to females at .057 of all head coaching positions. This overrepresentation of male coaches leaves women and women of color holding less than 20% of all the head coach positions in the California community colleges.

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11. A comparison of Caucasian head coaches to ethnic minority head coaches over the nine-year period resulted in no significant proportional hiring trends. People of color held .177 of the head coaching positions in 1988-89 and by 1996-97, they held a .196. For people of color, this result of a .019 increase indicates a lack of opportunities in head coaching positions over the nine-year period. Whereas, the Caucasians head coaching opportunities were an overwhelming .804 of the positions.

Conclusion

This study shows that during the last three decades several federal affirmative action laws that deal with equal hiring opportunities were enacted, such as Title VII, The 1972 Higher Education Guidelines and Title IX in gender equity. In California, AB 1725 was established to encourage the hiring opportunities for women and people of color in the community college system. However, in spite of these various attempts to deal positively with affirmative action, it appears that the California community college system has shown little significance in the hiring trends for women and people of color.

This study indicates that of the 1194 sports offerings available over the nine-year period, the overall proportion of sports offered to women (543) was.455 compared to men's (651) at .545. The proportion of sport offerings for women are obviously not equitable compared to the men. Interestingly, most of the California Community College campuses have a full-time student ratio of 60% female to 40% male (Nussbaum, 1997), yet women's sport offerings in the COA are less than .460. These numbers indicate a lack of compliance to Title IX. The California Community College System must pay

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more attention to matters of Title IX violations and compliance, in order to reach equitable outcomes and prevent law suits.

In athletic director positions, men clearly dominated these leadership positions in every year of the study. By the end of the nine years, men held 85 of the 115 positions available with a proportion of .739; women held a distant 30 positions for a proportion of .261. These data truly indicate a blatant lack of hiring opportunities for women.

On the other hand, people of color in athletic director positions indicated an even smaller proportion of .200 over the nine-year period. The breakdown of each individual ethnic group shows an even bigger picture of the dismal outcome for people of color in athletic administration in the nine-year period. Caucasians (92) held .800, followed by Latinos (8) at a distant .071, Asians (7) and Blacks (7) each held .061 and Native Americans (1) barely held .009. Obviously, people of color are not entering the athletic administration field in equivalent numbers as Caucasians, where they hold a scant 23 of 115 positions available over the nine years. These statistics indicate that Caucasians dominate the athletic director positions, potentially limiting the pool of employment and availability for people of color. The hiring pool for women of color was extremely limited, with the exception of Asian females. The breakdown of each individual ethnic group by gender shows an even bigger picture of the dismal outcome for women of color in administration over the nine-year period.

This study validates Kanter's theory in that the reflection of the administrator will be the reflection of the staff. Interestingly, women head coaches of all sports programs were found to hold a proportion of .222 over the nine-year academic period, whereas the

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female administrators make up a proportion of .261. Of course, men held the majority of both coaching positions and administration positions with a proportion of .778 and .739.

Unquestionably, sport offerings for women have increased in the California Community Colleges belong to the COA, although not equitable to those offered to men. Yet, women have not been able to regain control of their respective program prior to the passage of Title IX, when they coached over 90% of the female sport programs. Over the nine-year period, women (244) coaching women's sport programs increased to .449, yet that is less than half of the women's sport teams. Nevertheless, men (299) have taken control of the women's sport programs with .551 of the positions available.

When it comes to women (21) coaching men's sports programs; it is obvious that opportunities were extremely limited for women, where they held a scarce .032 compared to their male counterparts (630) holding a proportion of .968 of 651 positions available. Women of color are extremely underrepresented in coaching position holding a sparse 024 of the positions over the nine-year period. Head coaching positions held by men and women of color were .196 over a nine-year span. Unfortunately, these proportions do not reflect the ethnic diversity of the community colleges at 33% (Nussbaum, 1997).

While there has been legislation to assist in the hiring of women and people of color, it appears actual hiring or availability of positions has been limited. Factual information attributes legislation with providing increased opportunity for hiring pools that encouraged women and people of color to apply for athletic leadership positions. However, other factors which influence hiring practices deal with location of positions; limited retirement vacancies; more rigorous contracts; coaching more than one sport or a complex teaching schedule; and/or a low incentive to teach and/or coach part-time. One

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way for opportunities to increase in leadership positions for women and people of color is for them to improve their coaching and teaching experience, prior to applying at the community college; without this experience there seems to be no opportunity for upward mobility.

Recommendations

The impetus for this study was rooted by the initial lack of research on the California community colleges athletic programs, as it relates to gender and ethnic hiring trends. This study provides baseline data that will allow further studies on gender and ethnic minority representation.

It is further recommended that athletic leadership positions continue to be tracked to foresee the future hiring trends and assess the success of equity legislation. Most importantly, women and people of color need to be mentored into the field of community college athletics. Moreover, the hiring of women and people of color must become a significant component of each hiring pool at the California community college campuses.

The California community college system must produce opportunities for minority hires to recognize the impact of mentoring on such a diverse student population. Encouragement to look outside one's own environment must be the norm not the exception. Furthermore, it must be noted that mentoring through the hiring process is encouraged so that women and people of color recognize the application procedures and perceive future employment. It is also imperative that part-time positions be advertised to increase the hiring pool for women and people of color to enter and gain experience in the community college system.

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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX A

CALIFORNIA COMMUNITY COLLEGES

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CALIFORNIA COMMUNITY COLLEGES

The following California community colleges belong to the Commission on Athletics. These campuses were contacted by telephone for completion of the Equal Employment Opportunity Survey for the years 1988-89 through 1996-97

1. Allan Hancock College
2. American River College
3. Antelope Valley College
4. Bakersfield College
5. Barstow College
6. Butte College
7. Cabrillo College
8. Canada College
9. Cerritos College
10. Cerro Coso College
11. Chabot College
12. Chaffey College
13. Citrus College
14. City College of San Francisco
15. Cuesta College
16. College of Alameda
17. College of Marin
18. College of San Mateo
19. College of the Canyons
20. College of the Desert
21. College of the Redwoods
22. College of the Sequoias
23. College of the Siskiyous
24. Columbia College
25. Compton College
26. Contra Costa College
27. Cosumnes River
28. Cuyamaca College
29. Cypress College
30. De Anza College
31. Diablo Valley College
32. East Los Angeles College
33. El Camino College
34. Feather River College
35. Foothill College
36. Fresno City College
37. Fullerton College
38. Gavilan College
39. Glendale College
40. Golden West College
41. Grossmont College
42. Hartnell College
43. Imperial Valley College
44. Irvine Valley College
45. Kings River College
46. Lake Tahoe Community College
47. Laney College
48. Las Positas College
49. Lassen College
50. Long Beach City College
51. Los Angeles City College
52. Los Angeles Harbor College
53. Los Angeles Mission College
54. Los Angeles Pierce College
55. Los Angeles Southwest
56. Los Angeles Trade-Tech College
57. Los Angeles Valley College
58. Los Medanos College
59. Marymount College
60. Mendocino College
61. Merced College
62. Merritt College

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63. Miracosta College
64. Mission College
65. Modesto Jr. College
66. Monterey Peninsula
67. Moorpark College
68. Mt. San Antonio College
69. Mt. San Jacinto College
70. Napa Valley College
71. Ohlone College
72. Orange Coast College
73. Oxnard College
74. Palomar College
75. Pasadena City College
76. Porterville College
77. Rio Hondo College
78. Riverside College
79. Sacramento City College
80. Saddleback College
81. San Bernardino Valley College
82. San Diego City College
83. San Diego Mesa College
84. San Joaquin Delta College
85. San Jose College
86. Santa Ana College
87. Santa Barbara College
88. Santa Monica College
89. Santa Rosa J. College
90. Shasta College
91. Sierra College
92. Skyline College
93. Solano College
94. Southwestern College
95. Taft College
96. Ventura College
97. Victor Valley College
98. West Hills College
99. West Los Angeles College
100. West Valley College
101. Yuba College

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APPENDIX B

SURVEY

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EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY SURVEY[c]

School Name: _____ School Year: ____

Please place a check mark ✓ on the appropriate athletic administration position:

Head Athletic Director: ____ Men's Athletic Director: ____ Women's Athletic Director: ____

Please use the following letters indicated in the legend to complete your responses. If you do not have a person filling a listed position or do not offer a listed sport put an "X" in the not applicable column.

LEGEND

Ethnicity		Gender		Education (Highest Level)		Position Status	
African American/Black	A	Male	M	Bachelors	B	Full-time Tenure	T
Asian/Pacific Islander	P	Female	F	Masters	M	Full-time	N
Caucasian/White	W			Doctorate	D	Part-time	P
Native American	N			Credential	C		
Latino/Hispanic	L						
Other ethnicity	O						

Position/ Sport	Ethnicity	Gender	Education	Position Status	Not Applicable
Administration					
Head Athletic Director					
M Athletic Director					
W Athletic Director					
Assistant Director					
Head Coach					
M Baseball					
M Basketball					
W Basketball					
M Cross Country					
W Cross Country					
M Football					
M Golf					
W Golf					
M Soccer					
W Soccer					
W Softball					
M Swimming					
W Swimming					
M Tennis					
W Tennis					
M Track & Field					
W Track & Field					
M Volleyball					
W Volleyball					
M Water Polo					
W Water Polo					
M Wrestling					

Survey designed and prepared by Reyna Griselda Rosas

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APPENDIX C

COVER LETTER

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Office of University Research
California State University, Long Beach

Department of Kinesiology & Physical Education
California State University, Long Beach
1250 Bellflower Boulevard
Long Beach, California 90840

Mr./Ms. (Name of Athletic Director),

My name is Reyna Rosas; I'm a graduate student in the Department of Kinesiology and Physical Education at California State University, Long Beach. I am conducting a telephone survey as part of my master's thesis. The thesis is entitled "Gender & Ethnic Hiring Trends of Athletic Leaders in the California Community Colleges." The study is collecting data on the number of female and ethnic minority athletic directors and head coaches in the California community colleges from 1988 through 1997.

I selected all institutions that belong to the Commission on Athletics to participate in this survey. This study, on the hiring trends of athletic leaders on the community colleges is greatly needed and I am asking your institution to become involved. I assure you anonymity and confidentiality, the name of your institution, athletic director (s) or head coaches will not be reported in this study.

Your participation will require approximately three minutes of your time. I will indicate your responses on the survey for the gender and ethnicity, education, and position status of the athletic staff in your institution. Following the completion of the study, I will gladly send you a summary of the findings.

Should you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at (714) 898-9158 or Dr. Dixie Grimmett at (562) 985-4082.

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ABSTRACT

GENDER AND ETHNIC HIRING TRENDS OF ATHLETIC DIRECTORS AND HEAD COACHES IN THE CALIFORNIA COMMUNITY COLLEGES FROM 1988 THROUGH 1997

By

Reyna Griselda Rosas

August 1998

The purpose of this study was to determine the gender and ethnic hiring trends of athletic leadership positions in the California Community Colleges for the years 1988 through 1997. The directory published by the Commission on Athletics (COA) was used to contact and determine the population of the athletic departments. A survey was designed to assess the gender and ethnicity of athletic leadership positions at each college.

The review of literature highlighted court decisions and state and federal legislation to determine the magnitude and impact these decisions had on the employment of women and people of color in athletic leadership positions. This 9-year study indicated that the proportion of women and people of color compared to Caucasian males in athletic leadership positions remain low.

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GENDER AND ETHNIC HIRING TRENDS OF ATHLETIC DIRECTORS AND HEAD COACHES IN THE CALIFORNIA COMMUNITY COLLEGES FROM 1988 THROUGH 1997

A THESIS

Presented to the Department of Kinesiology and Physical Education

California State University, Long Beach

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

By Reyna Griselda Rosas

BA. 1986. California State University, Long Beach

August 1998

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WE, THE UNDERSIGNED MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE,

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Historical Overview

The United States of America has taken pride in its expansive multicultural and multiracial society. Known as the land of opportunity, this nation has fought to create equality for all humankind through its constitutional amendments and legislative actions. However, with the waves of immigration shaping today's society, this country continually faces societal challenges in education, employment and intercollegiate athletics, particularly in the State of California (Acosta, 1986; Valverde, 1988; Wilson and Justiz, 1988).

While educational leaders and legislators recognize the concerns and importance of diversity, history has shown a long journey of discrimination in employment and higher education. However, it is important to note that the limited number of equitable opportunities for employment and education have not gone unnoticed (Butler & Young, 1990; Ruiz, 1994; Wilson & Justiz, 1988). The literature reveals historic court decisions and legislation that have had great impact on diversity issues including: Plessy v. Ferguson (1896), Brown v. Board of Education (1954), the 1972 Higher Education Guidelines, Title VI and Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, Title IX of the Educational Amendment Acts of 1972, and Assembly Bill (AB) 1725 (1989). These cases have laid the foundation for educational equity. While members of potentially

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underrepresented groups are attending institutions of higher learning, there is still a definite concern with the low numbers of ethnic minorities and women achieving positions in higher education (Abney & Richey, 1992; Acosta & Carpenter, 1996; Butler & Young, 1990; Carter & Wilson, 1996; Hudson & Holmes, 1994; Jeffe, 1995; Nussbaum, 1997; Ruiz, 1994).

Valverde (1988) and Wilson and Justiz (1988) maintain that the low number of women and ethnic minorities in administrative positions is due to insufficient candidate hiring pools and lack of commitment to affirmative action guidelines. Other noted researchers acknowledge that opportunities in educational leadership positions have not mirrored the growth of cultural and racial groups consistent with the composition of the general population (Abney & Richey, 1992; Butler & Young, 1990; Carter & Wilson, 1996). Nonetheless, Dixon (1997) and Hudson (1992) maintain that the low number of ethnic minorities entering post-secondary education is the single most common factor affecting their lack of representation

Most notably, women of color face even more discrimination than any other underrepresented groups in opportunities for advancement in leadership roles (Carter, Pearson, & Shavlik, 1988; Corbett, 1995; Delano, 1990; Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991). Carter, et al., suggests that the lines of bias personify the race and gender of the individual. Some perceptions of this bias include women of color being socially subservient, chaotic and idiosyncratic in comparison to their white female counterparts; in addition, this perception separates them from the white male in society. Women of color believe they must be smarter, study longer, work harder, and be more articulate

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than everyone else to overcome the disparities of racism and sexism in higher education and the workforce (Abney & Richey, 1992; Delano, 1990; Eitzen & Furst, 1989). Dixon (1997) emphasizes that education and expertise overcome the prejudice of race and gender. Thus, lack of education and expertise in the particular field of study constitutes inadequate opportunities in leadership, salary, and other elements related to positions of power.

To overcome this historical pattern of discrimination among ethnic minorities and women, court decisions regarding segregation, such as Plessy v. Ferguson (1896), and educational issues under Brown v. Board of Education (1954) have attempted to abolish discrimination in the educational environment. Furthermore, Congress enacted affirmative action legislation, such as Title VI and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the 1972 Higher Education Guidelines, to prevent and abolish employment discrimination.

These legislative policies were a breakthrough in providing equitable recruitment and fair hiring practices for educational programs. Particularly in educational employment, the 1972 Higher Education Guidelines ensured affirmative action to prevent discrimination on the basis of race, creed, color, national origin, or sex. This legislative action called for institutions of higher learning to extend recruitment and hiring practices beyond the scope of the traditional network approach. Title IX of the Educational Amendments Act of 1972 prohibits sexual discrimination in educational institutions receiving federal funds (United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare [USDHEW], 1972).

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These legislative policies and Supreme Court decisions established ultimate goals that respond to all members of society with new opportunities in the educational systems and employment positions for women and people of color (Abney & Richey, 1992; Dixon, 1997; Jeffe, 1995).

The State of California

California, one of the most culturally and economically diverse states, is continually confronted with the pressures of gender equity and ethnically changing demographics. These issues are additionally encumbered by social and economic transformation, including poverty, incarceration and welfare. One pathway to secure California's economic prosperity and social stability is through education. For thousands of individuals, that journey is through the community college system (Nussbaum, 1997).

The State of California enacted legislation to govern affirmative action to protect the equal rights and opportunities of all individuals. The legislation includes the California Education Code: Sections 200-264 and the California Government Code: Sections 11135-11139.5. These codes affirm that no person will be subject to discrimination, with regard to ethnic group identification, national origin, religion, age, sex, color or disability, from any program receiving financial assistance from the state.

Despite ratified legislation to protect the equal rights and opportunities of all individuals, affirmative action implementation was not effective in the State of California (BGCCC, 1989). Therefore, the BGCCC saw the need to support more legislation to strengthen affirmative action guidelines for employment in the community college system.

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In 1988, California AB 1725 was adopted as a design and laid out a structure for the integration of equitable recruitment and hiring practices for underrepresented groups such as ethnic minorities and women. This California legislation accentuated the commitment and [illegible] equitable opportunities in the community colleges for women and people of color.

Despite this legislative effort, on November 5, 1996, the people of California voted to overturn affirmative action at the state level with the passage of Proposition 209. One year later, on November 3, 1997, the United States Supreme Court rejected the appeal to rescind Proposition 209 and the law remains in effect (California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office [CCCCO], 1997).

Leadership Roles in Athletics

Educational leadership opportunities for women and ethnic minorities have been limited; intercollegiate athletics is one area that has received noticeable attention. Intercollegiate athletics represents an important component of our society's social and economic fabric. Historically, sport in society for men was about power, competition and success; for women it is about team play, fun and leisure activities. Men and women did not compete on the same playing field; thus, social issues were not aggressively compared (Eitzen & Sage, 1993).

Today, issues of power and success are equally important to both men and women. Sport represents an important component of our nation's leadership evolution (Abney & Richey, 1992; Acosta & Carpenter, 1996; Eitzen & Sage, 1993). It is important to note that White males have long administered the control and management

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of men's athletic programs. On the other hand, over 90% of women's athletic programs were administered by females up through the 1970s (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996; Sommer, 1997).

One of the most influential pieces of federal legislation, Title IX of the Education Amendments Act of 1972, prohibited sexual discrimination at any educational institution receiving federal funds. It was after the passage of Title IX and into the early 1980's that women began to lose their athletic leadership positions. Athletic departments combined men and women's programs, and the majority of athletic leadership roles went to men, who had more tenure in employment (Acosta & Carpenter, 1988).

Twenty-five years after the passage of Title IX, the impact of the consolidation of sports programs tremendously affected both men and women in athletic leadership positions. This legislation provided the possibility of comparable pay for coaches of women sports to that of coaches of male sports, as well as increased leadership positions. The most dramatic impact of this legislation was the increase of female participation in sports. While Title IX increased participation and called for equitable salaries for coaches of women's teams, it also unexpectedly and drastically decreased the number of women participating in sport leadership positions at the interscholastic (Maier, 1989) and intercollegiate levels (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996). While federal legislation provided the impetus for increased involvement and participation of women and people of color in athletics, they are nearly nonexistent in athletic leadership positions when compared to their Caucasian male counterparts (Acosta, 1986; Acosta & Carpenter, 1996; Abney &

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Richey, 1992; Amateur Athletic Foundation of Los Angeles [AAFLA], 1992; Carter & Wilson, 1996; Corbett, 1995; Sommer, 1997).

Summary

The attempt of federal and state legislation to increase leadership opportunities for women and people of color has not been successful according to the results of several studies (Carter & Wilson, 1996; Contreras & Valverde, 1994; Hudson & Holmes, 1994). Although federal and state regulations have provided some legal substance; particularly in intercollegiate athletics, there have been few opportunities for ethnic minorities and women in leadership positions (Abney and Richey, 1992; Acosta & Carpenter, 1996, Sommer, 1997).

Statement of the Problem

What gender and ethnic hiring trends have occurred in the employment of athletic administrators and head coaches from 1988 through 1997 in the California Community Colleges?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this descriptive survey research was to determine the proportion of female and ethnic minority athletic directors and head coaches in the California community colleges for the years 1988 through 1997.

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Research Questions

The following research questions were posed to serve as a guide to this study:

1. How many sports offerings are sanctioned by the COA for men and women to determine Title IX compliance for the years 1988 through 1997?

2. What hiring trends have occurred for female and ethnic minority athletic directors for the years 1988 through 1997?

3. What hiring trends have occurred for female and ethnic minority head coaches for the years 1988 through 1997?

4. What hiring trends have occurred for female head coaches of women and men's sports programs for the years 1988 through 1997?

5. Is there a difference between the number of women of color compared to men of color in athletic leadership positions for the years 1988 through 1997?

6. Is there a difference between the number of Caucasians versus ethnic minority in athletic leadership positions for the years 1988 through 1997?

Hypotheses

These hypotheses were formulated as a result of the research questions:

1. There will be an increase in female sport offerings in the California community colleges from 1988 through 1997.

2. There will be an increase in the proportion of females holding athletic director positions in the California community colleges from 1988 through 1997.

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3. There will be an increase in the proportion of females holding head coach positions of women's sports programs in the California community colleges from 1988 through 1997.

4. There will be an increase in the proportion of females holding head coach positions of men's sports programs in the California community colleges from 1988 through 1997.

5. There will be an increase in the proportion of people of color holding athletic director or head coach positions in the California community colleges from 1988 through 1997.

6. There will be an increase in the proportion of people of color holding head coach positions in the California community colleges from 1988 through 1997.

7. There will be an increase in the proportion of women of color compared to men of color in athletic director positions.

8. There will be an increase in the proportion of women of color compared to men of color in athletic director positions.

Assumptions

For the purpose of this study, it is assumed that (a) the Equal Employment Opportunity Survey is a valid and reliable instrument in recording the athletic leadership positions in the California Community Colleges; (b) all responses were recorded accurately; and (c) the subjects responded truthfully to the survey.

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Delimitations

The scope of this study encompasses the following: (a) all 101 California community colleges belonging to the Commission on Athletics (COA) from 1988 through 1997; (b) sports sanctioned by the COA; (c) the gender of athletic directors; (d) the gender of head coaches of all sports programs sanctioned by the COA; (e) the gender of head coaches of women's sports programs; (f) the gender of head coaches of men's sports programs; (g) the ethnicity of athletic directors; (h) the gender and ethnicity of the athletic directors; (i) the proportion of Caucasian athletic directors versus ethnic minority athletic directors in the California community colleges; (j) the ethnicity of the head coaches; (k) gender and ethnicity of head coaches; and (l) the proportion of Caucasians head coaches versus ethnic minority head coaches in the California community colleges, COA.

Limitations

This study is limited to: (a) samples representing those California community colleges belonging to the Commission on Athletics for the years 1988 through 1997; and (b) the degree of validity and reliability of the Equal Employment Opportunity Survey.

Definition of Terms

The definitions of terms are operationally defined for the sole purpose of this study and include:

Affirmative Action: A procedure that requires an organization to provide opportunities to admit, promote, or hire more minorities and women, to redress past discrimination.

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Asian Pacific Islander: Asian Pacific Islander refers to the people of Southeast Asian, Far East, and Indian subcontinent origin.

Athletic Administrators: These positions encompass male and/or female athletic directors.

Athletic Leadership Positions: Athletic leadership positions refer to athletic directors or head coaches whose athletic leader positions influence athletic participants at the intercollegiate level.

Black: Black refers to African American people of African descent (non-Hispanic).

BCA (Black Coaches Association): The Black Coaches Association was developed by Black coaches throughout the nation with concern of the lack of hiring opportunities given to Black coaches.

BGCCC (Board of Governors of the California Community Colleges): The BGCCC is the legislative body for the California Community Colleges.

Caucasian: Caucasian refers to White European or Middle Eastern descent (non-Hispanic).

CCCCO (California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office): The CCCCO oversees the California community colleges.

COA (Commission on Athletics): The COA is authorized by the California Education Code to supervise the administration of men and women's intercollegiate athletic programs.

De facto: De facto refers to the actual exercising of authority and/or power.

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De jure: De jure is according to the law; by right; legally or rightfully.

Equity: The term equity refers to the proportion of women in athletic leadership positions to the total number of athletic leadership positions available. For example, if the school population was made up of 50% female, they should also comprise 50% of the athletes, the coaches, and athletic directors (United States Department of Education [USDE], 1996).

Ethnicity: Ethnicity refers to race and/or ethnic origin, that is, Native American; Asian or Pacific Islander; African American or Black (non-Hispanic); Caucasian or White (non-Hispanic); Latino (Hispanic); and Other ethnic groups.

Gender: The term gender refers to male or female; men or women; boys or girls.

Intercollegiate: Intercollegiate refers to post-secondary and/or college level competition.

Interscholastic: Interscholastic refers to secondary and/or high school level competition.

Latinos: Latinos refers to people of Mexican, Central American and South American origin, and people of Caribbean origin with Spanish surnames. Latin Americans of African origin are counted as Latinos, not African Americans.

Minority: The term pertains particularly to women and people of color, in compliance with state legislation Assembly Bill 1725 for California community colleges.

Native American /Alaskan Native: The term refers to people of North American and American Indian origin.

NCAA (National Collegiate Athletic Association): The NCAA is authorized to supervise the administration of men and women's intercollegiate athletic programs at Division I, II, and III institutions.

OCR (Office for Civil Rights): The Office for Civil Rights ensures that hiring practices are within the confines of the law.

People of Color: The term refers to individuals of various races and/or ethnic backgrounds such as African American/Black, Asian/Pacific Islander, Hispanic/Latinos, and Native American.

Underrepresentation: Individuals or minority ethnic groups whose low representation numbers reflect education and leadership positions.

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CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter offers a historical overview of the Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution, with regard to the struggles of ethnic minorities and women in America. This chapter presents United States Supreme Court decisions and state and federal legislation regarding ethnic and gender access to education, employment practices, and its impact on athletics. This review reflects current trends and issues of gender and ethnic representation of athletic leadership positions at the interscholastic, intercollegiate, and professional levels.

The Declaration of Independence & The United States Constitution

Over its history, the United States of America has experienced recurring themes dealing with racial and sexual discrimination in education and employment practices. The Declaration of Independence (1776), a document that declared all men are created equal, initially excluded Native Americans, Black slaves and women. In this document, Native Americans were declared savages, slaves were valued as property, women were considered appendages of men, and all were deemed not worthy of mention (Chambers, 1987; Starr, 1987). Eleven years later, in 1787, the United States Constitution was written. Before it was amended, the Constitution made no direct reference of equality for slaves or women. The founding fathers of the Constitution circumvented unsettling issues of equality towards slaves by indirectly using the euphemism "such persons" or

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"other persons." Again, women were not mentioned at all (Berry, 1988; Starr, 1987).

Post Civil War--Legislative Action

Eighty-seven years after the signing of the Declaration of Independence, the United States Civil War began over unsolved issues of slavery. In 1863, as the Civil War ensued, President Abraham Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation, freeing all slaves. However, Starr (1987) claims that the slaves were not emancipated until after the Civil War. The 13th Amendment, ratified in 1865 and overruling the Dred Scott decision, freed the slaves by eliminating their status as property. The 14th Amendment, ratified in 1868, granted citizenship and equal protection to all individuals born or naturalized in the United States.

During this period, America opened its doors to China. The Chinese were sanctioned unrestricted immigration and granted employment on the railroads. However, they were soon subjected to low pay and long hours. Within 15 years after their arrival into the United States, Chinese nationals were exposed to violence and accused of taking employment from Caucasian Americans. Consequently, Congress immediately passed the Chinese Exclusion Act (1882), which prohibited further Chinese immigration into the United States (Glazer, 1987; Wilson, 1996).

The 15th Amendment, ratified in 1870, made it illegal to deny the right to vote based on race, color, or previous servitude. This amendment allowed Black males the right to vote. Nevertheless, Berry (1988) and Franklin (1988) concur that Black voters were subjected to poll taxes, literary tests, residence and registration requirements, and grandfather clauses that in essence denied them the right to vote. It was not until 1964

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that the 24th Amendment banned poll taxes at federal elections. Berry (1988) noted that the 19th Amendment of 1920, which provided women the right to vote, was not fully enacted until Congress passed the Voting Rights Act of 1965. The Voting Rights Act of 1965 prevented further voter discrimination against people of color (Franklin, 1988).

In 1883 the United States Supreme Court declared the Civil Rights Act of 1875 unconstitutional, asserting that the 14th Amendment had not authorized Congress to enact laws extending civil rights to Blacks, thus denying Blacks equal protection under the law (Franklin, 1988). Chambers (1987) and Glazer (1987) interpreted the 14th Amendment's "due process" as a service to protect the rights of business rather than the interests of disenfranchised minorities.

People of color throughout the country were subjected to segregated schools; restrooms, transportation, access to education, and employment practices. These race-imbued practices of segregation were known as Jim Crow Laws (Berry, 1988; Franklin, 1988). Though several constitutional amendments evolved due to the Civil War, the nation continued to grapple with issues of equity. Disenfranchised citizens turned to the legal system to rectify improprieties in equity, forcing the United States to live up to its declaration that all men are created equal.

United States Supreme Court Decisions Prior to Brown v. the Board of Education

Historically, racial segregation was the mainstay of formal education for many disenfranchised minorities throughout the United States. Ethnic minorities were segregated, denied the right to an equitable education, and educationally disadvantaged (Brown, 1994; Contreras and Valverde, 1994; Parker, 1988; Riley, 1994). The first

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challenge of equity occurred in Plessy v. Ferguson (1896). The United States Supreme Court sanctioned racially separate facilities as equal. For people of color, separate educational facilities, without the provision of equitable educational opportunity was common place in American schools until disenfranchised minorities began to challenge their constitutional rights on equitable facilities and educational programs (Contreras & Valverde, 1994; Ruiz, 1994).

For Latinos, Mexican Americans spearheaded the first legal constitutional protection against school segregation as early as the 1930s in both state and federal courts (Contreras & Valverde, 1994). In a Texas case, Independent School District v. Salvatierra (1930), the district successfully contended that students' language deficiency justified separation by race.

The first federal court decision regarding Latinos was heard in California in Mendez v. Westminster School District (1946). In this case, the court ruled that separate schools violated the equal protection provisions of the Constitution. In Texas, Delgado v. Bastrop Independent School District (1948) the courts ruled the district's practice of segregation through a separate school based on language deficiency and Spanish-surnamed individuals violated the 14th Amendment. The court directed that the separate classes for non-English proficient students be held on the same campus.

All of these cases denied due process and equal protection under the 14th Amendment. Despite the rulings in Salvatierra, Mendez, and Delgado, school officials continued to practice de facto segregation (Contreras & Valverde, 1994). In addition, with the perception of desegregation compliance, Contreras and Valverde (1994) reported

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that school officials manipulated their education systems by labeling Latinos ethnically white for purposes of desegregation. Under this label, Mexican Americans were segregated from White students and paired with African American students in separate schools that were then considered desegregated. For Mexican Americans, the impact and challenge of being labeled White ethnically did not surface until Cisneros v. Corpus Christi Independent School District (1970) where they finally emerged as their own race and were no longer identified as Caucasian.

For African Americans, court cases challenging separate and equal facilities in higher educational institutions have been well documented. In Missouri ex rel. Gaines v. Canada (1938) and Sipuel v. the University of Oklahoma (1948), Blacks were denied access to the campus law school, although it paid expenses for them to attend an adjacent law school. The United States Supreme Court held both institutions in violation of the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment and ordered these institutions to provide equal facilities within the confines of the state. In Sweatt v. Painter (1950) and McLaurin v. Oklahoma State Board of Regents for Higher Education (1950), the courts found that separate facilities denied minority students equal educational opportunities in graduate and law schools. In particular, the Black student admitted to the law school in the McLaurin case was segregated inside the classroom and made to sit behind a door. Furthermore, in 1950, Mississippi's Black school children suffered with poor facilities and poorly trained Black teachers who had not even completed high school. Yet, every White segregated school in Mississippi had a White teacher with at least an earned high school diploma (Parker, 1988).

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In general, the United States Supreme Court decisions ruled that although segregated schools had the same facilities, segregation denied ethnic minority students due process and equal protection under the 14th Amendment of the Constitution. Despite these important rulings, many states continued to practice de facto segregation although it was illegal under the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment of the Constitution (Brown, 1994, Chambers, 1987, Contreras & Valverde, 1994; Parker, 1988; Riley, 1994; Russo, Harris, & Sandidge, 1994).

The Impact of Brown v. Board of Education

The most significant case regarding racial inequities that affected all of education was Brown v. Board of Education (1954). The plaintiffs argued that de jure segregation deprived Black students equal protection under the 14th Amendment. Those students subjected to this inequality were not allowed educational input, educational programs, teachers, and other resources that provide equal educational opportunities (Ruiz, 1994). Nevertheless, a lower level court applied Plessy v. Ferguson (1896) and overruled Brown (1954), contending that equality of treatment was accommodated when races were provided separate but equal facilities (Ruiz, 1994). As the case progressed, the United States Supreme Court found segregation harmful to Black children. The court ruled that segregation based on race labels one race as inferior to other races and therefore imposes a stigma of inferiority and deprives them equal protection under the 14th Amendment. Consequently, the United States Supreme Court declared de jure (rightfully) and de facto (exercising of authority) segregation unconstitutional (Ruiz, 1994).

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In Brown v. Board of Education (1955) the United States Supreme Court established a framework of educational policy and remedies for desegregation and set deliberations to speed up the desegregation process (Riley, 1994; Ruiz, 1994). Moreover, schools labeled as segregated soon came under the power of court supervision, but segregation continued to flourish during this period, particularly in the South. Disenfranchised ethnic minorities sought educational freedoms through the courts, especially Black families that had suffered from the inequities of discrimination by the Ku Klux Klan (Parker, 1988).

Contreras and Valverde (1994) argue that abolishing segregation has been particularly difficult for Latinos and African Americans. Despite their population growth, these minorities are continuously exposed to segregation, inferior facilities and unequal education, receiving minimal educational resources compared to White students. According to several researchers, Brown v. Board of Education (1955) negatively affected all students and minority teachers in education. The benefit of integrating White and Black students into one school system was the cause of the termination of thousands of African American administrators and teachers. Approximately 82,000 African American teachers who were responsible for the education of two million African American children lost their positions. Ten years later, in 1965, 38,000 African American teachers lost their positions in 17 southern states (Glazer, 1987; Hawkins, 1994; Hudson & Holmes, 1994). Smith (1987) reported a 66% decline in the number of African American students majoring in education between 1975-1985. Moreover, an estimated 37,717 ethnic minority candidates and teachers, including 21,515 African

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Americans, were eliminated as a result of newly installed teacher certification and teacher education program admissions requirements.

Although educational institutions had 40 years to comply with Brown v. Board of Education (1954 & 1955), many educational institutions continue the vestiges of segregation. Consequently, the nation continues to struggle with issues of inequities regarding race and educational practices (Butler, 1994; Contreras & Valverde, 1994; Hawkins, 1994, Hudson & Holmes, 1994).

Secondary Educational Attainment for People of Color

For most people of color, high school attrition rates and the ethnic composition in post-secondary institutions have affected their educational outcomes and successes. Still, it is an important insight to rate and evaluate access to higher education for students of color (Carter & Wilson, 1996; Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991; Lewis, 1996). The reality of educational discrimination, while possibly only subtle today, continues to deprive people of color (Sleeter, 1994; Wilson, 1996).

Statistics show improvements for all ethnic groups in high school completion rates in 1994: African Americans and Hispanics were 77% and 56.6%, respectively, while Whites were at 82.6%. Among Native Americans, those completing high school rose to 66%, while Asian students have had the most significant educational attainment rates at 80.4%. (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, 1996).

In the gender gap, women continue to complete high school at rates higher than those for men. In 1994, men had a high school completion rate of 79.4% while their

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female counterparts were at 83.6%. Nationwide, White females have the highest completion rate among all ethnic groups with 84.6% while their male counterparts were at 80.7%. African American women were at 80% compared to African American men at 73.7%. High school completion rates for Latinos fluctuated over a ten-year period with Latino males dropping to 53.8% with Latino women at 59.8% (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, 1996). Asian men posted higher completion rates at 83.6% compared to their female counterparts at 80.0% (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1995).

Higher Education Trends for Women & People of Color

College enrollment figures indicate a steady increase for students of color and female students since the 1980s. Despite this enrollment growth, ethnic minorities in particular are extremely underrepresented at predominantly White colleges and universities (Carter & Wilson, 1996).

African Americans and Latinos continued to trail Whites in their rates of college participation in 1994. Nearly 43% of White high school graduate students entered college compared to 35.5% for African Americans and 33.2% for Latinos. Unlike White and African Americans, Latinos lost some ground in the college participation rates from previous years (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, 1996).

Overall in the gender gap, women continue to enroll in college at higher rates than men. Women were at 43.1% compared to 41.6% for men. For White women, their enrollment rate was 43.7% compared to White men at 41.7%. African American men

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recorded an enrollment rate of 34.5% with African American women at 36.4%. Latino males were at 30.6% while their female counterparts recorded a higher rate of 36.0% (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, 1996). Meanwhile, Asian men reported a higher enrollment rate of 43.2% compared to Asian women at 35.5% (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1995). Overall, all four major ethnic groups achieved enrollment growth in 1994.

The General Accounting Office (1994) reported Latinos having the greatest dropout rate of any ethnic group. Factors in dropping out for Latinos were limited English skills, poverty, and early parenthood. Barriers faced by young Latinos in resuming their education, included poverty, poor English skills, the time needed to complete schooling, and job and family responsibilities. For Latinos, De la Torre (1996) emphasizes that the prospect of recruiting them into teacher education programs is seriously constrained by the relatively high drop out rates and their low percent of graduates completing a university preparatory curriculum.

For Native Americans, O'Brien (1992) reported they were more likely than any other racial or ethnic group to be considered "at risk" students. Risk factors attributed to their attrition rates include single parent families, low parent education, limited English skills, low family income, sibling dropout, and being home alone. In addition, Garrett (1995) believes cultural discontinuity between mainstream expectations and Native American cultural values effects the success of Native Americans in the educational setting.

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Although Asian students have had the most significant educational attainment rates of all people of color, O'Hare and Felt (1991) stress that the most recent Southeast Asian immigrants are not as educationally motivated as their predecessors. Numerous researchers have reported that many students of color are not academically prepared to enter post-secondary institutions (Goodlad & Keating, 1994; Herrington, 1993; Oakes, 1990; Riley, 1994). Consequently, other researchers are convinced there will definitely be an even greater need for a community college education in the 21st century (Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991; Lewis, 1996; Nussbaum, 1997).

Nussbaum (1997) maintains the economic and secure pathway to post-secondary education for all people is best achieved at the community college level. With the cost of higher education rising, the two-year college has become the educational option for women and most students of color. As for women, Dixon (1997) believes progress in attaining higher education will have positive effects on women's successes in penetrating what have been exclusively male occupations. Budhos (1996) maintains mentoring is the key for women to survive the passage from graduate student to seeking scholarly employment. Additionally, mentors must season and groom female graduate students to be competitive in the university marketplace.

De la Torre (1996) reaffirms that those colleges and universities which recognize the demographic shift and provide developmental programs, are in the forefront of enhancing educational success for students of color. These developmental programs provide financial assistance, mentors and recruiters to increase the pool of graduates at the university level. De la Torre emphasizes that without affirmative action, these

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developmental programs, as well as the educational pipeline for diverse students, would be jeopardized.

Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964

Because of past discrimination, people of color and women have had to struggle to exercise the same civil rights as White men, and they began to exert their civil rights through litigation (Tucker, 1996). What ensued took ten years after the Brown v. the Board of Education (1954) decision. Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion or national origin in any federally funded college or university. Particularly in athletics, Title VI prohibits institutions from establishing separate athletic programs on the basis of race or national origin. (Reith, 1992).

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, known as affirmative action, prohibits discrimination against a person's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin in federally funded programs, public and private employment, and public accommodations. The specific goals and procedures of this legislation are intended to eliminate the vestiges of racial and sexual discrimination at all levels of the workforce and in the educational system (Ruiz, 1994; Tucker, 1996). In addition, Ruiz (1995) contends affirmative action programs require governmental entities to act in a race-conscious and/or gender-conscious manner. For that reason, public employers' affirmative action programs may be challenged under both Title VII and the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment to the United States Constitution.

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The 1972 Higher Education Guidelines

The 1972 Higher Education Guidelines ensured that no consideration of race, creed, color, national origin, or sex, would take place in the hiring process of institutions of higher learning. These guidelines set precedence to extend recruitment and hiring practices beyond the scope of the traditional network approach. Further, institutions receiving federal funds were mandated by the federal government to expand their recruitment and hiring efforts of academic administrators from underrepresented minority groups (USDHEW, 1972).

Employment Status of Ethnic Minority Faculty in Higher Education

The need for more educators of color becomes even more evident when one looks at today's demographic trends in education. If current US demographic trends, it is projected that by the year 2000, public institutions will consist of a 35% ethnic minority student population while only 5% of the teaching force will be of color (Carter & Wilson, 1996).

Despite educational employment gains since the passage of the 1972 Higher Education guidelines, faculty of color worked primarily at historically Black colleges and universities, Puerto Rican universities and community colleges for much of the 20th century (Carter & Wilson, 1996). Colby and Foote (1995) reported that the representation of people of color in higher education positions still remains extremely low. At the community colleges, approximately 90% of the total faculty are Caucasian. The highest percentage of faculty of color is employed at public four-year institutions at 12.6%, and the lowest percentage is noted at the private two-year colleges at 2.6%. In

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particular, the community colleges are under pressure from both internal and external sources to recruit and retain minority faculty members.

Nationwide, Whites made up the majority of full-time faculties with 87.8% while minorities are at a dismal 12.2%. The breakdown of full-time faculty members by ethnicity shows African Americans holding 4.8%, Latinos at 2.3%, with 4.7% Asian Americans and 0.4% for American Indians (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1995). Wilson (1996) attributes these small increases in faculty of color to affirmative action programs by colleges and universities to seek out and employ qualified minority faculty. Carter and Wilson (1996) point out that despite these increased academic achievements for people of color over the past 20 years, they are grossly underrepresented in American higher education.

Barriers to Employment Opportunities for Women and People of Color

Historically, women and people of color have struggled for equal employment in the workforce. Carter and Wilson (1996) point out that discriminatory employment practices remain pervasive with minorities. Most notably, women of color have experienced double jeopardy in higher education positions because they are both female and of color. In addition, they must endure the pressures of a lack of recognition for the richness and diversity of their cultures (Allen, 1995; Arnold, 1993). Wilson (1996) found women of color were hired in education positions that tended to be clustered at the lower rungs of the professoriate as assistant professors and the non-tenure track lecturers at predominantly White institutions. Wilson suggests in his earlier analysis that discriminatory employment practices have been used against women of color.

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Konrad and Pfeffer (1991) contend that discrimination and segregation in hiring is influenced by the conditions of the labor market. They found that the pattern of gender and ethnic segregation is the result of individual hiring practices. Other researchers assert underrepresented minority groups' proportions in an occupation, the community or the organization of employment are key factors affecting their placement (Knoppers, Meyer, Ewing, & Forrest, 1991; Stangl & Kane, 1991).

Several researchers suggest that Kanter's (1977) theory offers the best explanation for the underrepresentation of women within male dominated managerial occupations (Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991; Knoppers, Meyer, Ewing, & Forrest, 1991; Stangl & Kane, 1991). Kanter's theory of structural determinants of organizational behavior identifies three structural variables--opportunity, power and proportion within organizations that affect the hiring of women. Furthermore, Kanter's theory argues that in the corporate setting, those who possess the same characteristics of the manager in terms of physical and social characteristics are most likely to be promoted. This process is referred to as homologous reproduction in which the dominant group reproduces its own self-image. Women are perceived differently in this process, since they are not duplicates of the dominant group (Kanter, 1977).

Another critical factor in the hiring process is the uncertainty of the applicant. Uncertainty relates to an applicant's abilities and whether an applicant will fit the organization. This uncertainty is likely to be diminished when the administrator is promoted from within, rather than hired from outside the organization. Therefore,

Konrad and Pfeffer (1991) hypothesized that women and ethnic minorities were more likely to be promoted from within than hired from outside the organization.

Wilson (1996) maintains that passage of the California Civil Rights Initiative (CCRI) will virtually eliminate affirmative action programs in public employment, education and contracting, thereby devastating the existing Executive Order 11246 of 1972, as well as civil rights enforcement policies of the past. Encouraging the recruitment of qualified women and minorities in colleges and universities will soon be a thing of the past. Despite this negative momentum, Michael-Bandele (1993) stresses diversity holds tremendous value in education because it encourages different methods of approaching problems and thought processes in a democracy.

Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972

Although the intent of Title IX was to affect all of education, it is the first piece of legislation that deals directly with athletics (Reith, 1992; Sommer, 1997). Title IX states that no person in the United States shall be subject to discrimination on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation, or be denied the benefits of any educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance. Title IX applies to educational institutions, whether private or public that receive any federal fund (United States Department of Education [USDE], 1996).

Title IX Clarification

For more than fifteen years, the Office for Civil Rights (OCR) under the guidance of the Policy Interpretation, enforced Title IX in the area of athletics. With the Policy Interpretation in place, every court has supported issues addressed to Title IX athletics

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(USDE, 1996). The Policy Interpretation was designed specifically for intercollegiate athletic programs. For a better understanding of these policies, the OCR published a document entitled "Clarification for the United States Department of Education" to respond to the guided enforcement of Title IX (Sommer, 1997).

The clarification document was limited to the three different options of compliance to Title IX. Schools can select any one of the three options with which to comply. Option 1 allows the institution to compare the ratios of male and female athletes to the total ratio of full-time male and female students. If institutions are substantially proportionate to their respective enrollments, that institution complies with the participation standards. Further, if an institution can demonstrate that their under-represented gender is less interested and not denied an opportunity to participate in intercollegiate sports, that institution could be deemed to be in compliance. Option 2 allows the institution to demonstrate that it has a history of a continuing practice of program expansion for the underrepresented gender. It must be able to demonstrate responsiveness to the developing interests and abilities of the underrepresented gender. Option 3 states an institution must demonstrate that their present program already effectively accommodates the interests and abilities of the underrepresented gender (USDE, 1996).

The focus of Title IX is on the underrepresentation of gender and equal opportunity. It also calls for all institutions receiving federal funding to provide equal opportunities in athletics. Institutions out of compliance with Title IX usually failed to

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respond to the interests and abilities of the underrepresented gender or provided proportionately fewer athletic opportunities and funding (Sommer, 1997).

There are three basic components of Title IX that must be exercised as it applies to athletics: participation, scholarships, and other benefits (USDE, 1996). Participation requires that women be provided equal opportunity with men to participate in sports. The scholarship component requires that female athletes receive the same proportional scholarship funding as the male athlete. That is, if there are 100 male athletes, 100 female athletes, and $2,000,000 in a scholarship budget, the budget must be equally divided between the men and women athletes. The other benefits component requires that female athletes receive equal treatment in the provision of equipment and supplies, scheduling of games and practice times, travel and daily allowance, coaching, tutoring, and locker rooms. Also included in this component is equality in publicity and promotions, sports medicine staff and facilities, recruitment of student athletes, and support services.

Impact of Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972

This legislation virtually changed all facets of athletics for females. Title IX significantly enhanced participation rates and quality experiences for girls and women in athletics while at the same time adversely affecting the number of females in athletic leadership roles (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996). During the 1970s, Sommer (1997) reported there were many efforts to amend Title IX to exclude football. The football programs carried the largest number of male athletes and coaches, as well as the bulk of the athletic budget, leaving the female athletic programs with one coach and a minimum budget, hence the efforts failed. Consequently, all sports are included with the understanding that

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Title IX does not mandate a decrease of opportunities for male athletes in order to provide increased opportunities for female participants.

In 1984, the power of Title IX was limited with a dramatic decision made by the United States Supreme Court case in Grove City College v. Bell. The institution, Grove City College, refused to sign Title IX compliance forms. The United States Supreme Court effectively ruled in Grove City College's favor, indicating that its department of athletics was a non-federally funded sub unit of education. Further, only those programs receiving federal funds would be under the jurisdiction of Title IX (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996).

Between 1984 and early 1988, college athletics were exempt from compliance with Title IX. It was not until March 1988 that Congress enacted, over a presidential veto, the Civil Rights Restoration Act (CRRA). This legislation reaffirmed the jurisdiction of Title IX as an institution-wide protection against discrimination (Crawford & Strope, 1996). During the 4 years in which Title IX was absent, one of the most significant occurrences was that women were impacted with scholarship reductions (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996).

The battle regarding Title IX adherence seems never-ending. Despite the Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1988, Title IX continually faces assault from colleges and universities throughout the country (Sommer, 1997). The most recent case heard by the United States Supreme Court was Cohen v. Brown University (1992). The women at Brown University filed and won a class action lawsuit against the university for dropping two female sports from varsity status, a violation of Title IX. Brown University appealed

on the premise that women were less interested in sports programs than men, and therefore its women's program was not in violation of Title IX. The United States Supreme Court upheld the appeals court decision that Brown University was out of compliance with Title IX. Interestingly, more than 60 colleges and universities spoke out unsuccessfully in support of Brown's position (Naughton, 1998a; Sommer, 1997).

The focal point of most Title IX law suits is participation. With Title IX guaranteeing equal opportunities in all areas of education, including sports, these court cases have served to empower victims of gender discrimination (Sommer, 1997). Additionally, Acosta and Carpenter (1996) noted an increase of sport offerings and sport participation for girls and women. For the past 19 years, participation opportunities for female athletes have continued to increase. In 1971, 294,015 girls participated in interscholastic sports. In 1972-73, that number more than doubled--to 817,073 and by 1977-78, that number grew to 2,083,040. Similar gains occurred in women's intercollegiate sports. In 1977-78, the year prior to Title IX mandatory compliance date, the number of sports offered to females was 5.61 per college. By 1988, that number grew to 7.31. In 1990, the average number of sports offered to women was 7.24; in 1992, 7.09; and in 1996, an all time high of 7.53 sports per college were offered. Sports offerings for women have continued to increase in light of Title IX.

Only recently have girls and women begun to respond to the clamor of gender discrimination in athletics. According to Carpenter and Acosta (1991) the call for reform in college athletics gives women a special opportunity to be more proactive. However, overcoming persuasive gender discrimination and other forms of athletic abuse will

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require collective efforts from both men and women (Naughton, 1998a; Sommer, 1997). These adverse efforts continue to threaten the participation of women athletic leadership positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996).

Gender Hiring Trends and Issues in Athletics

Prior to Title IX, the majority of sports programs were managed and coached by the same sex as their sports participants. Following the passage of Title IX, participation opportunities and sport offerings for girls and women grew at both the interscholastic and intercollegiate levels in the United States. Apart from these positive effects of Title IX, the negative effect was the demise of females in athletic leadership positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996). Because Title IX did not require that athletic programs remain segregated, most male and female athletic programs were consolidated. The power to control these joint programs was handed to the senior administrator, usually a male, thus diminishing the voice and authority of females holding athletic power positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996; Hasbrook, Hart, Mathes & True, 1990).

Acosta and Carpenter (1996) reported that in 1972, more than 90% of head athletic administrators in four-year intercollegiate programs who were overseeing women's programs, were female. By 1988, the number of women head athletic administrators had dropped to a mere 16.05%. Two years later, in 1990, women directed 21% of female sports programs. The percentage of administrative positions held by women dropped from 30.8 % to 27.8 % between 1990 and 1992. By 1996, female sports programs had dropped dramatically to 18.5% of its female athletic administrators. Table 1 represents the percentage of female athletic directors of women's sports programs from

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1972 through 1996 at all divisions of the NCAA. Table 2 provides the percentage of women's intercollegiate athletic programs lacking any female administrator at all divisions of the NCAA.

Table 1

Percentage of Female Head Athletic Directors of Women's Programs

	1996	1994	1992	1990	1988	1986	1984	1982	1980	1972
All Divisions	18.5	21.1	6.8	15.9	16.1	15.2	17.0	--	20.0	90+

	Female AD	Male AD
	1996	1996
All Divisions	18.5	81.5
Division I	08.8	91.2
Division II	16.7	83.3

Note. From "Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study-Nineteen-Year Update 1977-1996" by R. V. Acosta and L. J. Carpenter, 1996, Unpublished Document. "Reprinted with permission."

Table 2

Percentage of Women's Programs Lacking Any Female Administrator

	1996	1994	1992	1990	1988	1986	1984
All Divisions	23.9	24.4	27.8	30.3	32.5	31.9	31.6
Division I	7.9	9.9	14.6	21.8	25.6	23.4	21.4
Division II	38.5	44.7	38.8	39.9	33.3	34.1	36.9
Division III	27.5	21.5	31.9	32.8	37.9	38.3	36.9

Note. From "Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study-Nineteen-Year Update 1977-1996" by R. V. Acosta and L. J. Carpenter, 1996, Unpublished Document. "Reprinted with permission."

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In fact, Table 2 shows that 23.9% of four-year NCAA intercollegiate programs do not have the supervision of a female athletic director of any women's sports programs, thereby denying a female voice for their respective women's programs.

Carpenter and Acosta (1992) conducted a study of senior women athletic administrators to learn more about their career experiences and why most never sought a lateral or vertical job change. One major factor they discovered was that female intercollegiate athletic administrators do not take the same employment risks as their male counterparts. A questionnaire was sent to all National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) senior women's administrators with over ten years experience at their institutions. Of the respondents, over 13 percent never sought a job change, and 20 percent never contemplated a job change. The most frequently stated reasons for not having changed employment in any manner was their feelings of comfort on campus, and feelings that the job was challenging and rewarding. However, they indicated that the two major factors they would change about their current employment were low salaries and lack of authority. The worst aspects of their careers in coaching included: long hours, salary not reflective of the amount of time and work commitment, low external rewards, and sex discrimination. Other reasons for failing to make any career change laterally or vertically included burnout, fear of risk-taking in career move, discouragement with lack of openness of job search, and non-mobility of family. However, 99% of the senior women administrators stated that the best factors of their jobs outweighed the worst.

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The impact of Title IX has also affected the interscholastic arena. Maier (1989) conducted a study representing gender trends of athletic administrators from the California Interscholastic Federation--Southern Section (CIF-SS). This longitudinal study covered a thirteen year period from 1975-1989. Consequently, the research found a dramatic decrease of female representation in athletic administration. Listed in Table 3 is the breakdown of gender representation of girls high school athletic administrators over the 13 years.

Table 3

Gender Representation of Girls Athletic Administrators

	FEMALES		MALES	
	N	%	N	%
1975-1976	202	67.56	97	32.44
1980-1981	165	48.39	176	51.61
1985-1986	136	37.57	226	62.43
1988-1989	114	32.85	233	67.15

Note. From "Thesis. Gender trends in the employment and assignment of coaches and athletic directors in the California Interscholastic Federation -- Southern Section 1975-1989" by Maier, K. "Reprinted with permission."

While opportunities for sport participation have increased for females, the profile of female coaches and athletic administrators has changed dramatically. During the early years of Title IX legislation, virtually all female teams were coached, officiated and administered by women (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996). The passage of Title IX integrated women's programs with men's under one administration; however, this administration was most often under the direction of male leadership (Smith & Ewing, 1992).

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Today, over 90% of the head coaches of men's teams are males. When Title IX was passed in 1972, more than 90% of the head coaches of women's teams were females (Sisley & Steigelman, 1994). Acosta and Carpenter (1996) noted that in 1990, the number of women coaching women dropped dramatically to 47.3%. Furthermore, the status of women as coaches increased only one percent in 1992 to 48.3%. In addition, they indicated that in the last ten years (1986-1996), the number of coaching jobs for women's teams increased by 812 positions. However, women were only able to obtain 181 of those positions while the remaining 631 went to men. Most notably, since the passage of Title IX, men not only dominate coaching positions for women's teams, but there has been no concurrent access of women into the coaching ranks of the men's teams.

Shown on Table 4 is the gradual demise of the percentage of women coaching women's teams at all divisions of the NCAA. In fact, Acosta and Carpenter found that only two percent of the NCAA head coaches of men's teams within their organization are females and most of them coaching combined teams (teams practicing together) such as swimming, cross country, and tennis.

In 1996, Acosta and Carpenter reported that 6,508 head coaching jobs existed for women's teams at the intercollegiate level, with women holding fewer than half--3,147 of those positions, despite the growth of sport offerings for women. Sisley and Steigelman (1994) assert that the lack of female coaches deprives female athletes of positive role models and creates a lack of women in athletic leadership positions since athletic directors are often promoted from coaching positions.

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Table 4

Percentage of Women Coaching Women's Teams--All Sports

	1996	1994	1992	1990	1988	1986	1984	1982	1980	1972
All Divisions	47.4	49.4	48.3	47.3	48.3	50.6	53.8	52.4	54.2	90+
Division I	47.5	46.9	46.6	44.2	43.8	45.5	49.9	--	--	--
Division II	41.9	45.4	42.3	44.0	45.7	46.8	52.2	--	--	--
Division III	51.3	53.6	52.6	51.8	53.3	57.2	58.8	--	--	--

Note. From "Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study-Nineteen-Year Update 1977-1996" by R. V. Acosta and L. J. Carpenter, 1996. Unpublished Document. "Reprinted with permission."

Blum (1994) reported that salary is one of the most important factors that affected the hiring of more coaches of women's sports programs. Prior to Title IX, female coaching positions and sports programs were under-funded compared to male sports programs. Blum notes that some colleges are giving women's athletic team coaches substantial raises. However, Naughton (1998b) in a study by The Chronicle of Higher Education, found that in the 1996-97 academic year, men's head coaches at a median institution earns an average salary of $80,000 while women's coaches earn an average of $50,000. Furthermore, men's coaches earned 43% more than women's coaches at the median institution. However, these discrepancies dealing with salary equity in college sports are being advocated into legal challenges under the anti-discrimination laws such as the Equal Pay Act and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

Phillip (1993) believes college athletics is a bastion of male domination. With the power in the hands of men, the number of male administrators, assistant administrators, and coaches of women's sports programs has increased dramatically. Men tend to move

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into women's sports programs, particularly when salaries of those jobs are higher than others available in the job market. Suddenly, women are experiencing unequal opportunity in salaries, administration and coaching. However, Stangl and Kane (1991) point out, that while it is important to increase the number of women in administrative positions; this in no way ensures that women's power in those positions will ever be equal to their male counterparts. At the same time, other researchers state that the declination of women in athletic leadership positions is due to role conflicts and a heavier academic work load than their male counterparts, which leads to burnout (Felder & Wishnietsky, 1990).

Delano (1990) and Nelson (1991) mention that overall racism, classicism and heterosexism play a major role in discrimination when hiring women. For example, women athletic leaders who are single are labeled as lesbians and those making the hiring decisions feel lesbian athletic leaders do not represent a proper public image. Consequently, homophobia also affects hiring decisions. Nelson suggest that to dispel myths and attitudinal barriers about the potential of female athletes and female athletic leaders, parents, teachers and society as a whole must be educated.

Grant and Curtis (1993) found that women have a better chance of becoming president of a NCAA institution than becoming the head athletic administrator of that institution. At Division I institutions, they found women holding 11 athletic director positions compared to 15 president positions. At the Division II level, 23 women were athletic directors and 27 held president positions. The Division III institutions have the largest numbers of females holding leadership positions; however, female presidents

outnumber their athletic director colleagues, 69 to 65 respectively. Acosta and Carpenter (1996) found that the gender of the athletic director at the intercollegiate level would make a profound difference in the make up of the employment of female coaches of women's sports programs. Table 5 demonstrates the impact that the gender of the intercollegiate athletic director has on the percentage of female coaches employed to coach female sports at the intercollegiate level.

Table 5

Gender of Athletic Director versus Percent of Female Coaches

Sex of Athletic Director	Percent of Female Head Coaches for Women's Teams		
	1996	1994	1992
Male Athletic Director	45.6	47.4	46.4
Female Athletic Director	55.8	57.1	50.8

Note: From "Women in Intercollegiate Sport: A Longitudinal Study-Nineteen-Year Update 1977-1996" by V. R. Acosta and L. J. Carpenter, 1996, Unpublished Document. "Reprinted with permission.

State and federal legislation has attempted to remedy gender equity in education and athletics over the past 20 years, and athletic participation for females has increased tremendously as a result. However, the number of women in athletic leadership roles has declined throughout the country (Abney & Richey, 1992; Acosta & Carpenter, 1996).

Ethnic Minority Hiring Trends and Issues in Athletics

There has been much data collected on the lack of female representation in athletic leadership positions. For people of color, however, researchers have given limited attention to the issue of athletic leadership positions, with information nearly

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nonexistent (Abney & Richey, 1992; Acosta, 1986). Fifty years have passed since the integration of Blacks into professional sports, yet professional and collegiate administrative and coaching positions are still dominated by Caucasians. This is a reminder that racism may still exist in American sports (Brooks, Althouse, & Tucker, 1997).

Brooks, Althouse, and Tucker (1997) reported that in 1987, the Black Coaches Association (BCA) was established. In response to the vehement outcry of racism in collegiate and professional sport organizations, including the NCAA, the BCA addressed the issue of Black representation and influence in the collegiate coaching ranks. Coaches from high schools to colleges attended the first BCA Conference to voice their concerns over the lack of hiring coaches of color. Current coaches and former head coaches suggested that younger assistant coaches urge their head coaches to give them the opportunity to perform other duties, such as scouting, dealing with administration, and coaching in practice sessions. The BCA made it clear that their intention is not to seek special consideration when it comes to hiring; rather, they want equal consideration.

In Black Issues in Higher Education, Farrell (1994) reported that the low number of Blacks hired at top division schools troubles the NCAA. In 1987, the NCAA formed a special committee to make an effort to promote opportunities for people of color in coaching and athletic administration. Once this committee formed, the NCAA began to systematically collect and analyze employment data of African American athletic leadership patterns. This data revealed that in 1986-1987, there were only two African American athletic directors in the 105 Division I-A institutions. At the Division I-A

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level, there were three head football coaches, and about 25 Division I-A head basketball coaches at the 273 predominantly White. Furthermore, the NCAA reported that Blacks are continually underrepresented in coaching and athletic administrative positions. The subcommittee concluded that the situation was dismal and that much more needs to be done to recruit and develop Black athletic leaders. The NCAA panel found that Blacks hold 6.1% of all full-time administrative positions; however, only 4.4% Blacks hold athletic director, associate director, and assistant directors positions (Farrell, 1994).

The 1994 NCAA Division I Graduation Rate Report showed that African American student-athlete participation numbers increased to 15,119 (National Collegiate Athletic Association, 1995). In addition, Black Issues in Higher Education (Farrell, 1994) reported that from 1991 to 1993, there were 1,109 new head coach positions (excluding historically Black colleges) yet African Americans represented a mere 143 (12.9 %) of the new head coaches. Between 1991 and 1994, the number of assistant coaches increased by 2,394, but African Americans gained only 213 (9%) of those new positions. This data indicates that simply increasing the number of African American athletes did not influence the hiring trends of African Americans in coaching positions.

The 1997 Racial Report Card found Black coaches virtually shut out among head coaches at the 112 Division I-A football institutions with five. Furthermore, of 3,208 assistant football coaches 481 (15%) are Black, excluding those at historically Black institutions. According to Rudy Washington, executive director and Alex Wood, vice president of the BCA, found these results deplorable and appalling (Farrell, 1998). Greenlee (1998) reported that those making the decisions off the field remain

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overwhelmingly White. Particularly at Division I institutions where college athletic directors make up 9.1% Black men and 1% Black women. As for coaching, the 1997 season data revealed 7.2% Black head football coaches of 110 Division I schools and Head Basketball coaches accounted for 50 of 289 at the Division I level.

For women of color, the passage towards athletic leadership positions does not come without barriers. Abney and Richey (1992) reported that even with the passage of Title IX, stereotypes, social attitudes, ignorance, racism, and sexism still hampered women of color from participating in athletics.

Smith and Ewing (1992) reported that there has been a significant increase in athletic participation of African American females, compared to their Hispanic and Caucasian female counterparts, at selected interscholastic sports. Yet, data for their roles in athletic leadership is nearly nonexistent (Abney & Richey, 1992). Although research is scarce regarding athletic leadership positions for people of color, several noted researchers suggest that inaccessibility to higher educational opportunities and experience is what limits ethnic minorities' participation in athletic leadership positions (Acosta, 1986; Brooks, Althouse, & Tucker, 1997; De La Torre, 1996; Gregory, 1994).

State of California Legislation (Assembly Bill 1725) and California Community Colleges Affirmative Action Program

In 1983, the State of California enacted California Education Code Sections 200-264, which mandate that all individuals, regardless of their sex, shall be provided equal rights and opportunities in the educational institutions of the state. This legislation brought about some form of equitable opportunity for all women (BGCCC, 1989).

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For people of color, the impact of affirmative action is directly related to their waves of demographic growth throughout the State of California. By the early 1980s, the demographic revolution that would thrust them into the forefront of the majority by the year 2000 was evident. Furthermore, the Stindt study of 1985 became the focal point for the California Community Colleges as it revealed that 34% of the community college students were ethnic minorities, yet 85% of the faculty were Caucasians. These educational trend lines brought educators and politicians into a state of alarm (Gulassa, 1996).

The California legislature found it necessary for community colleges to adhere to affirmative action transformation based on the state's major demographic and diverse society. In March 1986, a citizen's commission working closely with a legislative joint committee produced a document entitled "Challenge of Change." This task force created revolutionary provisions and a multimillion-dollar increase in the community college budget to implement changes reflecting issues dealing with personnel and finance. This document became known as Assembly Bill (AB) 1725 (Gulassa, 1996).

On September 19, 1988, Governor George Deukmejian signed AB 1725 into law for the California community colleges. In AB 1725, the California legislature acknowledged the demographic, social and economic transformations in California. The legislature noted that community colleges are one of the focal points of this change. In noting the state's transformations, the legislature required districts and community colleges to comply with affirmative action statutes. Community colleges and their districts were required to update affirmative action plans to meet hiring goals to make

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faculty and staff more representative of the state's diversity through the Board of Governors, California Community Colleges (1989). Through AB 1725, the California State Legislature provided two goals for staff diversity: the short-term goal was to achieve a goal that 30% of all new hires be ethnic minorities during the 1992-93 fiscal year, and the long-term goal was to have a workforce in the community colleges that mirrored the demographic characteristics of the state's diverse population by the year 2005 (Sheehan, 1993).

The California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office (1997) reported that students enrolled in California community college closely mirrored the adult population in the State of California. In the California community colleges, the Caucasian population is 45% of all students, compared with 55% in the state population. The percentage of African Americans in the California community colleges is 8%, compared with 7% in the population. Latinos represent 23%, compared with 27% in the population, and Asians represent 13%, compared with 12% in the population. On the other hand, women make up 60% of the California community college student population, compared to 50% of the state population.

Although AB 1725 was adopted unanimously in 1988, the reluctance of certain districts to acknowledge the mandated changes has slowed the progress of the bill's full impact (Locke, 1992). Locke concedes that the number of underrepresented individuals hired in the community colleges in faculty and administrative positions increased to 28.4% in 1990-91. The anticipated future increase in this figure may be overly optimistic. Most of the underrepresented faculty and administrative members hired are

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not new faculty members to the system, they are being recruited from other community colleges within the system.

Proposition 209 (California Civil Rights Initiative)

In November 1996, through a California general election, Article I, Section 31 was added to the California Constitution by the passage of Proposition 209. Proposition 209, better known as the California Civil Rights initiative, abolished affirmative action treatment based on race or sex in public employment, education, or contracting at the state and local levels (CNN News Bulletin, 1997). Opponents of Proposition 209 challenged its validity in federal court on the grounds that it violated the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment of the United States Constitution. However, the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals upheld Proposition 209, and the subsequent rejection of the United States Supreme Court to hear the case cleared the path for California to ban affirmative action programs (CCCCO, 1997). Thus, Vicini (1997) argues, California has become the first state to abolish the affirmative action programs that expanded equal opportunities for women and members of minority groups since the 1960s. Also, Corbett (1995) maintains the backlash on affirmative action and its daily visibility in the media has deepened the already challenging relations between California's ethnic and racial groups in employment and access to higher education.

Though the federal courts have held Proposition 209 constitutional, they have not ruled on its meaning and/or scope, thus allowing room for future court decisions. Nevertheless, it is particularly important that hiring and recruitment be approached with

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careful guidance. Regardless of this law, AB 1725 remains intact until an appellate court determines a violation in Propositions 209 (CCCCO, 1997).

Commission on Athletics (COA)

From 1950 through the early 1970s, the California Junior College Association (CJCA) governed intercollegiate athletics for men statewide through the Commission on Athletics (COA). During this same time period, women physical educators governed their own athletic programs regionally. However, in the early 1970s, with Title IX legislation developing nationally, a visionary group of college presidents and athletic administrators established a special committee to develop a state athletic code. Under the direction of State Commissioner Walter Rilliet, this committee designed an operating state athletic code that would include policies and procedures for all community college student-athletes to follow. In the early 1980s, the California community colleges became the first public institutions in the United States to consolidate men's and women's athletic programs (Jensen, et al., 1988).

The State Athletic Code was developed to enhance the viability, quality, and opportunity for women in athletics, in addition to promoting and ensuring academic progress, amateurism, ethical conduct, and equitable competition for all student athletes. Further, it is the responsibility of each institution to administer its program in compliance with the State Athletic Code and with regional conference policies and procedures. Through their conferences, colleges are given opportunities to provide input into the development of rules and regulations (Jensen, et al., 1988).

The California Association of Community Colleges, formerly the CJCA, through its Commission on Athletics (COA) is authorized by the California Education Code to supervise the administration of the men's and women's intercollegiate athletic programs. In the California community colleges, 101 of the 107 community colleges have athletic programs and are members of the COA (California Community College Athletic Directory, 1994). Hence, the goals of the COA are to reaffirm that the role of athletics be an integral part of the educational programs.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this longitudinal study was to explore the gender and ethnic representation of athletic leaders in the California Community Colleges during a nine-year period from 1988 through 1997.

Subject Selection

The subjects selected in this study were athletic administrators and head coaches in the 101 community colleges that belong to the Commission on Athletics (COA) representing the California community colleges (Appendix A). The community college subjects were individuals in athletic administration and head coaching positions as listed in the California Community College Athletic Directory for the years 1988 through 1997.

Instrumentation

The data was collected using a survey instrument that identified the gender and ethnic employment and assignment of athletic leadership positions, in the California Community Colleges, from 1988 through 1997. The survey, titled the "Equal Employment Opportunity Survey of California Community College Athletics Programs," was designed by Reyna Griselda Rosas (Appendix B). The purpose of the survey was to identify athletic administrators and head coaches by gender and ethnicity. The ethnic categories used were Asian/Pacific Islander, Black/African American (non-Hispanic),

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Caucasian (non-Hispanic), Native American, Latino and Other. Only those sports sanctioned by the COA for intercollegiate competition were surveyed to assess the gender and ethnicity of the head coach positions. The sanctioned men's sports for intercollegiate competition include baseball, basketball, cross-country, football, golf, soccer, swimming, tennis, track and field, volleyball, water polo, and wrestling. The sanctioned women's sports for intercollegiate competition include basketball, cross-country, golf, soccer, softball, swimming, tennis, track and field, volleyball, and water polo.

Data Collection

The Standardized Protocol for the Protection of Human Subjects at California State University, Long Beach, was filed and approval was obtained to proceed with the study. The researcher used the following steps for data collection:

1. The researcher contacted the office of the Commission on Athletics to secure the names and titles of athletic leaders through its state directory.

2. All information for this study was gathered by using the telephone interview procedures. The researcher contacted one and/or two athletic administrators (dependent on the structure of the athletic program) at each California community college COA member campus to secure the gender and ethnicity of all athletic coaches and administrators.

3. Prior to asking for specific data, the researcher gave the campus athletic administrators detailed information about the purpose of the study (Appendix C). Athletic administrators were assured that anonymity and confidentiality would be used in reporting the data from their community college. Names of the athletic directors and

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head coaches were not reported in this study. The data collected identified only the titles by gender (male and or female) and ethnicity of the athletic directors and head coaches involved with the COA representing the California community colleges. In addition, sports sanctioned by the COA.

4. There were three follow-up calls made to all institutions unable to respond to the initial telephone contact.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows, version 7.5. The data for this study was obtained from both the California Community College Athletic Directory for the years 1988 through 1997 and the athletic administrator on each campus. The study included the ethnicity and gender of athletic directors and head coaches hired during each year from 1988 to 1997. Raw scores for each classification were entered into a spreadsheet and then converted into proportions population parameters for proportion (π) were obtained, rather than parameter estimate (ρ) because the entire population was measured, therefore no inferential statistics were needed.

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CHAPTER 4

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

A total of 101 California Community Colleges (CCC) were interviewed by telephone to determine the gender and ethnicity of all athletic administrators and head coaches. All 101 California Community College members of the Commission on Athletics (COA) responded to the survey and are represented in this study.

The gender and ethnicity of athletic directors and head coaches were recorded and tabulated using information gathered from the athletic administrator from each school for the years 1988-1997. Using SPSS for Windows, version 7.5, the researcher statistically analyzed the data. The results of these analyses are presented in Tables 6-16, and include the raw data, frequencies and proportion. The population parameter for proportion (π) rather than the parameter estimate (ρ) was used because all members of the population were measured.

All tables presented in this study reflect information from the California Community Colleges for the years 1988 through 1997. Table 6 shows the California Community Colleges sports sanctioned by the Commission on Athletics. The gender of athletic directors for each year is represented in Table 7. Table 8 illustrates the gender of head coaches of all sports programs. Table 9 displays the gender of head coaches of women's sports programs, and Table 10 represents the gender of head coaches of men's sports programs. The ethnic classification of the athletic directors is shown in Table 11.

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Table 12 identifies ethnicity of athletic directors by gender, and Table 13 shows Caucasian athletic directors versus Ethnic Minority athletic directors as a group. The ethnicity of head coaches of all sports programs is reported in Table 14. Table 15 reveals ethnicity of head coaches by gender, and Table 16 represents the head coaches that are Caucasians versus Ethnic Minorities as a group.

Sports Sanctioned by the California Community Colleges Commission on Athletics (COA)

As shown in Table 6, the proportion of women (494) holding athletic leadership positions in sports sanctioned by the COA was .431 during 1988-89, while the proportion of men (701) during the same period was .587. In 1989-90, the number of female participation opportunities (494) remained the same, although their proportion decreased to .415, the men's sports programs (695) dropped six positions, decreasing to a proportion of .585. In 1990-91, women were offered seven additional sports opportunities (501) for a proportion of .413, however, the men were offered 17 more sports programs (712), increasing their proportion to .587; reflecting the same proportion as 1988-89.

In the following year, 1991-92, females did not gain any opportunities, although their proportion dropped slightly to .411 due to men gaining five more sports (717) for a proportion of .589. Although males lost 72 sports offerings (645) in 1992-93, they still outnumbered women, with a proportion of .562, despite women gaining two sports (503) for a proportion of .438. In the academic year of 1993-94, the proportion of women increased to .441 in sports offerings (508), an increase of five sports, while male sports offerings (645) showed no growth, and dropped to a proportion of .559.

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Women's sports offerings (512) in 1994-95 increased by four positions for a proportion of .442; meanwhile male opportunities (646) also increased by one sport for the academic year with a proportion of .558. In the next year, 1995-96, women were offered 18 new sports (520) showing a proportion of .446. During this same time, the proportion of sports offered to men was .554 for a gain of one sport (647).

Table 6

Sports Sanctioned by the California Community Colleges Commission on Athletics

	Females		Males		Total Sport Offerings
Year	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	494	.413	701	.587	1,195
1989-90	494	.415	695	.585	1,189
1990-91	501	.413	712	.587	1,213
1991-92	501	.411	717	.589	1,218
1992-93	503	.438	645	.562	1,148
1993-94	508	.441	645	.559	1,153
1994-95	512	.442	646	.558	1,158
1995-96	520	.446	647	.551	1,167
1996-97	543	.455	651	.545	1,194
Totals	4,576	.430	6,059	.570	10,635

Note. It is evident that attempts have been made to increase sport offerings in order to come into compliance with Title IX. Nevertheless, there are more sport offerings for men than women.

Women saw their greatest increase in the 1996-97 school year with an increase of 23 sports (543) for a proportional total of .455. During this time, men gained four sports

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(651) as their proportion dropped slightly to .545 of the sports programs.

Overall, women's sports offerings have gradually increased over the nine-year period of this study. Their largest increase occurred in 1995-96 with 28 sports and 1996-97 with 23 sports. Unfortunately, women (543) did not reach an equitable plateau of sports offerings holding a proportion of .455 to the proportion of men's sports offerings (651) of .545 by 1996-97. This is noteworthy since female students at the California Community Colleges make up over 60% of the full-time student population (Nussbaum, 1997).

Gender of Athletic Administrators

As presented in Table 7, the proportion of women (21) holding athletic director positions was .188 in 1988-89, meanwhile the proportion of men (91) during the same time period was .812. In 1989-90, female administrators (27) increased to proportion of .225 with men increasing two positions (93) but decreasing in proportion to .775. In 1990-91, women increased one position (28) for a proportion of .228; men (95) gained two positions, yet their proportion decreased to .772.

In 1991-92, the number of female athletic directors (25) dropped by three positions for a total proportion of .212, at the same time, men (93) decreased two positions, yet their proportion increased to .788. The next year, 1992-93, the number of women athletic administrators (27) increased two positions for a proportion of .237, whereas men (87) dropped an all time high of six positions for a proportion of .763.

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However, in 1993-94, the number of women (26) decreased one position for a proportion of .228, while the number of men (88) increased one position for a proportion of .772. In the 1994-95 and 1995-96 years, both female (26) and male (89) athletic directors remained constant with a proportion of .226 and .774. For female administrators (30), the largest gain occurred during the 1996-97 academic year, with an increase of four positions for a proportion of .261 while number of male decreased to 85 positions for a total proportion of .739.

Table 7

Gender of Athletic Directors in the California Community Colleges

	Females		Males		Total Positions
Year	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	21	.188	91	.812	112
1989-90	27	.225	93	.775	120
1990-91	28	.228	95	.772	123
1991-92	25	.212	93	.788	118
1992-93	27	.237	87	.763	114
1993-94	26	.228	88	.772	114
1994-95	26	.226	89	.774	115
1995-96	26	.226	89	.774	115
1996-97	30	.261	85	.739	115
Totals	236	.226	810	.774	1,046

Note. Male athletic directors have dominated the administration arena in the COA all nine years.

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Overall, from 1988-89 through 1996-97, opportunities for female athletic directors increased by nine positions, while the number of male athletic directors (236) decreased by six positions. Despite of the observed changes, men (810) continue to dominate the athletic administration field, holding a proportion of .739 to .266 for females.

Gender of Head Coaches

Evidence in Table 8 shows that in the school year of 1988-89, the proportion of women (201) holding head coaching positions was .168, while the proportion of men (994) during the same time period was .832. Women (192) decreased to a proportion of .161 in 1989-90, losing nine positions, with male head coaches (997) gaining three positions for a proportion of .839. In 1990-91, women earned 20 coaching positions (212), resulting in a proportion gain of .175, although men (1,001) achieved four new positions, their proportion decreased slightly to .825.

In 1991-92, the proportion of female coaches (215) showed an increase of .177, with a gain of three positions, as for male head coaches (1,003), the proportion dropped slightly to .823, though they increased by two positions. Again, in 1992-93, females (232) experienced their largest increase: 17 head coaching positions for a proportion of .202, however, the men head coaches (916) decreased by an all-time high of 87 positions, dropping their to a proportion .798, although they overwhelmingly dominate the head coaching positions. In the academic year 1993-94, the proportion of women (237) increased to .206 in head coaching positions, while the number of male coaches (916) remained the same, their proportion decreased slightly to .794.

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Table 8

Gender of Head Coaches of All Sports Programs in the California Community Colleges

	Females		Males		Total Positions
Year	f	%	f	%	f
1988-89	224	.168	994	.832	1,195
1989-90	192	161	997	.839	1,189
1990-91	212	.175	1,001	.825	1,213
1991-92	215	.177	1,003	.823	1,218
1992-93	232	.202	916	.798	1,148
1993-94	237	.206	916	.794	1,153
1994-95	243	.210	915	.790	1,158
1995-96	249	.213	918	.787	1,167
1996-97	265	.222	929	.778	1,194
Totals	2,046	.192	8,589	.808	1,063

Note. Over the nine-year period, male coaches decreased by 65 positions, while women increased by 64 positions, yet women are underrepresented in coaching, holding an average proportion of .200 compared to the men's .800.

In 1994-95, women (243) were offered six new positions, increasing in proportion to .210, while men (915) dropped one position for a proportion of .790. In the ensuing year, 1995-96, the proportion of women (249) holding head coaching positions was .213, an increase of six new positions, while the proportion of men (918) during the same time period was .787. Women (265) were offered 16 new head coaching positions in 1996-97

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for a proportion of .213, although men (929) gained 11 positions, their proportion decreased to .778.

Over the nine-year period, it was apparent that women accepted head coaching opportunities afforded them. It is important to note that women continuously increased in head coaching positions throughout the nine years. Women had three excellent years of coaching growth; in 1990-91, 20 positions; 1992-93, 17 positions; and 1996-97, another 16 positions. Of 1,194 available positions throughout the nine years, women gained 64 positions while the men decreased by 65 positions. Regardless of male head coaches experiencing a decrease of 65 positions over the nine years, they continue to dominate the head coaching field, holding a proportion of .808 (8,589) to .192 (2,046) of 10,635 positions available.

Gender of Head Coaches of Women's Sports Programs

Table 9 represents women coaching women's sports programs. In 1988-89, the proportion of females (191) represented .387 of women's coaching in women's sports programs. Meanwhile, males (303) dominated coaching women's sport teams holding a proportion of .631 of 494 available positions. The following year, women (185) lost six positions and dropped to a proportion of .374 with men (309) increasing six position for a proportion of .626 of head coach positions of women's sports teams, in 1989-90. Entering the new decade, in 1990-91, women (198) regained thirteen positions, increasing to a proportion of .395, during the same year, men (303) decreased six positions for a total proportion of .605 of the head coaching positions of women's sports teams.

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In the 1991-92 school year, women coaches (202) of women's sports were limited to two positions for a proportion of .403, although males (299) decreased by four positions, including dropping their proportion to .597, they still dominate coaching female teams. By 1992-93, women (216) had their largest gain, during the academic year, with fourteen positions, increasing their proportion to .429, while their male colleagues (287) were cutback by 12 positions for a total proportion of .571. As slowly as males lost positions, women gained positions. In 1993-94, the growth of positions for females (223) increased to by six positions for a proportion of .439 at the same time, men (285) dropped two positions for a total of .561.

The 1994-95 academic year was not much better for the females coaching women's teams (227)--they gained four positions with a proportion of .443. At the same time, the number of male coaches of women's teams remained the same (285), although their proportion decreased to .557. In 1995-96, women (232) gained five additional positions with a proportion of .446, while men (288) had a proportion of .554, a growth of three positions. In the 1996-97 year, females (244) experiences their largest growth of 12 positions for a proportion of .449 during the same time period, males (299) had their largest gain of nine coaching positions for a proportion of .551.

As a whole, from 1988-89 through 1996-97, women coaching in the women's sports programs made some gains, however, men continue to dominate the women's sports programs coaching positions, controlling a proportion of over .550 to women's .450. In addition, women's sports programs gained 49 coaching opportunities over the nine years.

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Women gained 53 head coaching positions, while men lost four, in the women's sports programs.

Table 9

Gender of Head Coaches of Women's Sports Programs in the California Community Colleges

	Females		Males		Total Positions
Year	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	191	.387	303	.613	494
1989-90	185	.374	309	.626	494
1990-91	198	.395	303	.605	501
1991-92	202	.403	299	.597	504
1992-93	216	.429	287	.571	503
1993-94	223	.439	285	.561	508
1994-95	227	.443	285	.557	512
1995-96	232	.446	288	.551	520
1996-97	244	.449	299	.551	543
Totals	**1,918**	**.419**	**2,658**	**.581**	**4,576**

Note. Men control the coaching ranks in the women's sports programs, although women have continually gained positions over the nine-year period.

Furthermore, in 1988-89, women held 191 of the 494 head coach positions in the women's sports programs, where men held 303. During this time, men held a proportion of over .600 of the women's sports programs with women holding below .400. These data indicate that it is men that primarily control the women's sports programs. By the final year of the study, 1996-97, female head coaches of women's sports programs

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increased, holding 244 of 543 available positions, while men continue to hold the majority of head coach positions with 299. These results indicate women have slowly moved into the area of coaching their own gender, however, men continue to dominate the coaching ranks of the women's sports programs.

Females as Head Coaches of Men's Sports Programs

Table 10 demonstrates the apparent lack of opportunities given to women coaching male sports programs. In 1988-89, women (10) held a meager proportion of .014 of coaching positions of male sports, while at the same time, the men's proportion was .986 (691). In 1989-90, females (7) represented a loss of three positions, dropping to a proportion of .010, with men (688) having full control of the male sports programs with a proportion of .099. The new decade, 1990-91, showed women (14) gaining seven coaching positions in the men's sports programs for a total proportion of .020. At the same time, men (698) gained ten more coaching positions, maintaining control with a proportion of .098.

In the following year, 1991-92, women (13) lost one position, dropping to a proportion of .018, while the men (704) continued to increase by six positions for a proportion of .98.2. In 1992-93, male coaches (629) decreased by 75 positions, but still held a proportion of .975 of the coaching positions. Meanwhile, women (16) gained a mere three positions, for an extremely low proportion of .025 of the available coaching positions. The following year, 1993-94, women (14) lost two positions, dropping to an even lower proportion of .022. At the same time, men (631) gained two more positions increasing their proportion to .978 of the coaching positions for men's sports programs.

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Table 19

Gender of Head Coaches of Men's Sports Programs in the California Community Colleges

	Females		Males		Total Positions
Year	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	[illegible]	.014	691	.986	701
1989-90	07	010	688	.990	695
1990-91	14	020	698	.980	712
1991-92	13	018	704	.982	717
1992-93	16	025	629	.95	645
1993-94	14	022	631	.978	645
1994-95	16	.025	630	.975	646
1995-96	17	026	630	.974	647
1996-97	21	032	630	.968	651
Totals	128	021	5,931	.979	6,059

Note. Over the nine-year study, it remains that female coaches are underrepresented with in the men's sports programs holding an average proportion of .021 (128).

In 1994-95, women (16) gained two positions for a scarce proportion of .025, as men (630) decreased by one position, but maintaining control of the men's sports programs with a proportion of .975. In 1995-96, women (17) gained one position increasing to a proportion of .026, while the number of male coaches (630) remained the same, although their proportion decreased to .974. By 1996-97, women (21) gained four Coaching positions slightly increasing their proportion to .032. As for male coaches of

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the men's sports programs, despite their numbers remaining constant holding 630 positions, their proportion barely decreased to .968.

During the years of 1988 through 1997, 50 head coaching positions were dropped from the men's sports programs. Although women only earned 11 additional opportunities to coach in the men's sports programs throughout the nine years.

In 1988-89, women held 10 of 701 head coach positions in the men's sports programs. By 1996-97, women held 21 of 651 head coaching positions in the men's sports programs. Despite the loss of 50 male sports programs, women made minimal gains in the coaching ranks of the men's sports programs. It is evident that men dominate their respective sports programs by holding 630 of the 651 positions available by the end of the nine-year study.

Athletic Administrators by Ethnic Classification

Table 11 figures show Caucasians (95) holding a proportion of .848 of the 112 positions in 1988-89. The remaining proportions consisted of Blacks (8) at .071, followed by Latinos (6) at .054, Native Americans (2) at .018, and Asians (1) held a mere proportion of .009 of all athletic director positions. In the 1989-90 academic year, the proportion of Caucasians (102) holding athletic leadership positions, increased to .850 of the 120 positions. On the other hand, Blacks (10) increased by two positions with a proportion of .083, while Latinos (5) dropped one position for a proportion of .042. During this time, Native Americans (2) gained no positions yet increased ever so slightly to a proportion of .017, as did the Asian (1) athletic director with .008. Evidence shows that 1990-91 was the highest gain of athletic director positions for Caucasians (107), who

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control the athletic programs with a proportion of .870 of the 123 athletic directorship positions. Blacks decreased from 10 positions to nine, and dipping to a proportion of .073. Asians (3) acquired two positions, reaching a proportion of .024 during that year. On the other side, both Latinos (2) and Native Americans (2) dropped to a scant .016 of the athletic director positions.

The 1991-92 academic year, survey results illustrate that despite losing five positions, Caucasians (102) still maintained dominance in athletic administration by occupying a proportion of .864 of 118 positions. At the same time, Blacks (7) lost two positions, decreasing to a proportion of .059, while Latinos (4) and Asians (4) each retained a proportion of .034 of these positions. Native Americans struggled to an insignificant proportion of .008, the equivalence of one position. For the 1992-93 school year, Caucasians (91) saw a substantial drop of eleven positions to a proportion of .798 of 114 athletic administrators, maintaining these numbers until 1994-95. Asians (8) and Blacks (8) each held a proportion of .070 of these athletic administration positions, although, only Blacks (8) maintained these numbers in the ensuing year of 1993-94. On the other hand, Latinos (7) obtained three new positions, moving to their proportion to .061 and remained there until 1996-97. Meanwhile, the Native Americans lost their one position in athletic administration in the California community colleges, until 1996-97. In 1993-94, Asians (7) were the only ethnic group to lose any positions, one; yet they were able to secure a proportion of .061 of the 114 athletic administrators through 1996-97. In addition, other ethnic groups (1) held .002 of athletic director positions through 1994-95; thereafter, they played no leadership roles throughout the study.

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Table 11

Athletic Director Positions by Ethnic Classification in the California Community Colleges

Ethnicity	Asian		Black		Caucasian		Native American		Latino		Other		Total
Year	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f
1988-89	1	.009	8	.071	97	.845	2	.018	6	.053	0	.000	114
1989-90	1	.008	10	.083	102	.850	2	.017	5	.042	0	.000	120
1990-91	3	.024	9	.073	107	.870	2	.016	2	.016	0	.000	123
1991-92	4	.034	7	.059	102	.864	1	.008	4	.034	0	.000	118
1992-93	8	.070	8	.070	91	.798	0	.000	7	.061	0	.000	114
1993-94	7	.061	8	.070	91	.798	0	.000	7	.061	1	.009	114
1994-95	7	.061	9	.078	91	.791	0	.000	7	.061	1	.009	115
1995-96	7	.061	8	.070	93	.809	0	.000	7	.061	0	.000	115
1996-97	7	.061	7	.061	92	.800	1	.009	8	.070	0	.000	115
Total	45	.043	74	.071	864	.825	8	.080	53	5.1	2	.020	1046

Note. Throughout the nine-year study, only two ethnic groups achieved some success in gaining positions, Asians with six positions and Latinos with two positions.

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In 1994-95, Caucasians (91) held to a steady proportion of .791 of 115 athletic director positions. Blacks (9) increased by one position moving to a proportion of .078. The 1995-96 academic year Caucasians (93) were the only group with a gain of two positions, increasing to a proportion of .809 of the 115 athletic directors. Blacks decreased by one position (8) to a proportion of .070. The 1996-97 year saw a drop of one position for Caucasians (92) with a proportion of .800 of 115 positions, and Blacks (7) to .061. On the other hand, Latinos (8) regained one position, after four years of being stagnant and their proportion rose to .070 of the athletic director positions, while Native Americans gained one position for a proportion of .009.

In summation, the results signify that there have been few gains for ethnic minorities in athletic administration positions over the nine-year period. Caucasians achieved dominance in athletic director positions, while they lost three positions over the nine-year period, they held 93 of the 115 positions available. Asians had the largest gain of any ethnic group in athletic administration with six, for a total of 7 athletic director positions. Latinos held 6 athletic director positions and increased by two positions for a total of 8 positions by the end of the study. Blacks started with eight athletic directors and ended up with 7 positions. Native Americans lost one position yet were able to retain one position over the nine year period.

Gender of Athletic Administrators by Ethnic Classification

In Table 12, a comparison was performed based on the ethnicity of the athletic director and his or her gender. The data were collapsed across the nine reporting years. The same subject is counted for each year they participated in the study. The breakdown

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among gender and ethnicity of athletic administrators found the proportion of Asian females (36) was [illegible] compared to Asian males (9) with a proportion of .200. Most Black administrators were male (71), with a proportion of .959, while their female counterparts (3) were underrepresented with a proportion of .041. Caucasian males (684) overwhelmingly dominated their female counterparts (180) with a proportion of .792 compared to .208.

Table 12

Gender of Athletic Administrators vs. Ethnic Classification in the California Community Colleges

	[illegible]		Males		Total Positions
Ethnicity	f	%	f	%	f
Asian	36	.800	9	.200	45
Black	[illegible]	.041	71	.959	74
Caucasian	[illegible]	.208	684	.792	864
Native American	[illegible]	.000	[illegible]	1.000	8
Latino	17	.321	36	.679	53
Other	0	.000	2	1.000	2
Total	236	.226	810	.774	1,046

Note. With the exception of Asian female athletic directors, men control the administration of athletics in the COA.

Native American women have never held any athletic administrator positions; their male counterparts held the eight positions for a proportion of 1.00. Latino women (17) held a proportion of .321, of the athletic director positions with the Latino men (36) holding

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.679 of the proportion. All other ethnic groups were males (2) who held a proportion of 1.00 of the athletic administration positions.

Overall, the data in Table 12 reveal women of color, with the exception of Asians, are underrepresented in the area of athletic administration. Men of color have prevailed over their female counterparts holding 126 athletic director positions to 56. Caucasian males outnumber their female counterparts 684 to 180 positions. Moreover, Caucasian male and female athletic directors dominate these positions against all other ethnic groups with 864 of 1,046.

Caucasian Athletic Directors versus Ethnic Minority Athletic Directors

Table 13 represents the proportion of Caucasian athletic director s versus ethnic minority athletic directors in the California Community Colleges belonging to the COA. In 1988-89, the proportion of people of color (17) holding athletic director positions in was .152, while the proportion of Caucasians (95) during the same time period was .844. In 1989-90, people of color (18) by rose one position, with their proportion decreasing to .150 at the same time as Caucasians (120) increased seven positions, for a proportion of .850 of the 120 available positions.

In 1990-91, people of color (16) had a loss of two athletic director positions, with their proportion decreasing to 130. During the same time period, Caucasians (107) gained five more for a proportion increase of .870 of 123 athletic director positions available. During the academic year of 1991-92, people of color (16) made no gain in the number of athletic director positions, although they had a slight proportional increase to .136. While Caucasians (102) had a decrease of five positions, yet hold .864 of 118

athletic director positions. In 1992-93, people of color (23) gained seven athletic director positions for a proportion of .202. In contrast, the number of Caucasians (91) decreased by eleven positions for a proportion of .798 of 114 available positions. There were no changes in the hiring of people of color and Caucasians in 1993-94. People of color (24) gained one athletic director position in 1994-95, increasing their proportion to .209.

Table 13

Caucasian Athletic Directors versus Ethnic Minority Athletic Directors in the California Community Colleges

	Caucasians		Ethnic Minorities		Total Positions
Year	f	r	f	r	f
1988-89	95	.844	17	.152	112
1989-90	102	.850	18	.150	120
1990-91	107	.870	16	.130	123
1991-92	102	.864	16	.136	118
1992-93	91	.798	23	.202	114
1993-94	**91**	**.798**	**23**	**.202**	**114**
1994-95	**91**	**.791**	**24**	**.209**	**115**
1995-96	93	.809	22	.191	115
1996-97	92	.800	23	.200	115
Totals	864	.825	182	.175	1,046

Note. Ethnic minorities are extremely underrepresented in athletic director positions.

During the same time period, the number of Caucasian athletic directors (91) remained the same, although their proportion slightly decreased to .791. By 1995-96, the number

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of Caucasian athletic directors (93) increased two positions for a proportion of .809. While people of color (22) decreased two positions for a proportion of .191 of 115 available positions. The 1996-97 school year, people of color (23) gained one position for a proportion increase of .200 of the athletic director positions. Meanwhile, Caucasians (92) experienced a one position decrease yet held a proportion of .800 of the 115 available positions of athletic director.

The statistics in Table 13 disclose that Caucasians hold 92 of 115 athletic director positions; by far outnumbering people of color, where there held 23 positions by the end of the nine-year period. Although the proportion of hiring trends has fluctuated slightly over the years in this study, few changes have occurred in the hiring of ethnic minorities in the California community colleges.

Head Coaches by Ethnic Classification

Table 14 illustrates the ethnicity of head coaches of all sports programs in the California Community Colleges belonging to the COA. The proportion of Caucasians (984) holding head coaching positions in the COA was .823 during 1988-89, while the proportion of Blacks (92) followed at a distant .077. Latino head coaches (76) held a proportion of .064, with Asians (28) at .023 and Native Americans (15) holding a mere .013 of the head coaches.

In 1989-90, the number of Caucasian head coaches (969) decreased by 15 positions, accounting for a proportion of .815. During that same time, Blacks head coaches (86) lost six positions, accounting for a proportion of .072; Latinos (82) gained six positions for .069 and Asians (34) held .029. Native American head coaches (17) lost

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two positions, holding a proportion of .014; other ethnic groups gained one position for a mere proportion of .001 of all head coach positions.

Caucasians (950) experienced the loss of 13 head coaching positions in 1990-91 but still dominated holding a proportion of .788. Latinos (99) occupied 13 new positions, advancing to a proportion of .082. Blacks (94) gained eight head coaching positions and rose to .077, and Asians (40) increased by six positions to .033. Native Americans (18) remained low, gaining only one position, for a proportion of .015, and the other ethnic groups (6) slightly increased by five positions to scant .005.

In 1991-92, Caucasians (976) proportion of head coaches was .801, an increase of 20 new head coach positions from the previous year. Latinos (94) dropped lost five positions for a proportion of .077; Blacks (90) saw a slight decrease of four head coaching positions at .074. Asians (33) declined by seven positions, to a proportion of .027; Native Americans (16) showed a decrease of two positions for .013; other ethnic groups (9) increased three positions to .007.

In 1992-93, Caucasians (927) saw a dramatic decrease of 49 head coaching positions; yet, they still remained in control holding a proportion of .807 of 1,148. Blacks (99) represent a proportion of .086 with an increase of five positions, while Latinos (76) lost 14 head coaching positions and declined to .066. Asians (31) dropped to a low proportion of .025 with a loss of two positions. Noteworthy is the fact that Native Americans (8) had a decrease of eight head coaching positions, one half from the previous year, dropping to a mere proportion of .007, and remained constant until

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1994-95. In addition, other ethnic groups (5) also dropped four positions to a scant proportion of .004 until the 1994-95 school year.

The 1993-94 year saw the number of Caucasian (943) head coaches increase by 16 positions for a proportion of .818. During the same time period, Blacks (100) showed a one position gain for .087, Latinos (70) lost six positions for .061 and Asians (29) declined by two positions holding a proportion of .025 of the head coach positions.

The 1994-95 academic year saw a fluctuation of head coach positions for all ethnic groups. Caucasians (944) experienced an increase of three positions for a proportion of .815. Blacks (97) slightly decreased to a proportion of .084, losing three coaching jobs; Latinos (78) obtained eight new head coaching positions, going to .067; and Asians (30) stepped up ever so slightly, for a proportion of .026. Native American s (6) lost two head coaching positions, leaving them with a meager proportion of .005, and remained stagnant until 1996-97; other ethnic groups (3) dipped to an extremely low .003 of all head coach positions through 1996-97.

In 1995-96, Caucasians (942) lost two positions, yet maintained control of head coaching positions with a proportion of .807. Blacks (100) regained three positions for .086 of the head coach positions; Latinos (84) obtained six new head coaching positions for .072; with Asians (32) slightly increasing two positions to .027. Caucasians (960) experienced their largest gain of head coaching positions with 18 positions, in 1996-97 for a proportion of .804. Blacks (102) slightly increased to a proportion of .085, Latinos (89) gained five for .075, and Native Americans (5) losing one position for .004 of all head coaching positions.

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Table 14

Head Coach Positions by Ethnic Classification in the California Community Colleges

Ethnicity	Asian		Black		Caucasian		Native American		Latino		Other		Total
Year	f	π	f	π	f	π	f	π	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	28	.023	92	.077	984	.823	15	.013	76	.064	0	.000	1,195
1989-90	34	.029	86	.072	969	.815	17	.014	82	.069	1	.001	1,189
1990-91	40	.033	94	.077	956	.788	18	.015	99	.082	6	.005	1,213
1991-92	33	.027	90	.074	976	.801	16	.013	94	.077	9	.007	1,218
1992-93	31	.027	99	.086	927	.807	8	.007	76	.066	5	.004	1,148
1993-94	29	.025	100	.087	943	.818	8	.007	70	.061	5	.004	1,153
1994-95	30	.026	97	.084	944	.815	6	.005	78	.067	3	.003	1,158
1995-96	32	.027	100	.086	942	.807	6	.005	84	.072	3	.003	1,167
1996-97	35	.029	102	.085	960	.804	5	.004	89	.075	3	.003	1,194
Total	292	.027	860	.081	8,601	.809	99	.009	748	.070	35	.003	10,635

Note. Throughout the nine-year period, Caucasians dominated head-coaching ranks in the California Community Colleges Commission on Athletics.

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From 1988 through 1997, all ethnic groups experienced some change in the head coaching positions. Caucasians had their largest loss of 49 positions in 1992-93. By the end of the nine-year period, they regained 23 positions, maintaining domination in the head coaching ranks holding 960 positions. Blacks obtained 10 positions over the nine-year period for a total 102 of the head coaching positions. The highest number of head coaches for Latinos was in 1990-91 where they gained 13 positions; but eventually they lost 10 of these by the end of 1997 for a final tally of 89 positions. The Asians' best year for head coaching attainment was in 1990-91 when they gained six positions, but these slowly disappeared over the next three years. By the end of 1997, Asians accumulated six new head coach positions over the nine years, holding a low 35 of 1,194 positions available. Native Americans had the greatest loss of any ethnic group of color with 10 positions over the nine-year period, holding a mere 5 positions. While other ethnic groups gained three head coaching positions, barely holding 3 positions in the last three years of the study.

Gender of Head Coaches by Ethnic Classification

Table 15 interprets the comparison based on the gender of the head coach and his or her ethnicity. The data were collapsed across the nine reporting years. Therefore, the same subjects are counted for each year they participated in the survey. As shown on Table 15, the statistics reveal significant differences the gender and ethnicity of the head coaches in the California community colleges. Further, Table 15 displays that Asian male head coaches (211) are overrepresented holding a proportion of .72.3 compared to female Asian counterparts (81) with .277. Black women (74) are also underrepresented

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with a proportion of .086 as compared to .914 of Black male head coaches (786). The proportion of Caucasian male head coaches (6813) is .792 compared to.208 for their female colleagues (1788). Native American female head coaches (5) are nearly nonexistent with a mere proportion of .051 compared to .949 held by Native American men (94). Latino women head coaches (96) trail their male counterparts (652), holding only a proportion of .128 to .872. Other ethnic groups show female head coaches (2) well underrepresented at a proportion of .057 compared to their male counterparts (33) at .943.

Table 15

Gender of Head Coaches by Ethnic Classification in the California Community Colleges

	Females		Males		Total Positions
Ethnicity	f	π	f	π	f
Asian	81	.277	211	.723	292
Black	74	.086	786	.914	860
Caucasian	1,788	.208	6,813	.792	8,601
Native American	5	.051	94	.949	99
Latino	96	.128	652	.872	748
Other	2	.057	33	.943	35
Total	2,046	.192	8,589	.808	10,635

Note. All women of color are underrepresented as head coaches in the COA.

Overall, the data reveals that all women are underrepresented in head coaching positions. However, Caucasian males and females dominate the head coaching ranks in the California community colleges.

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Caucasian Head Coaches versus Ethnic Minority Head Coaches

Table 16 represents the overall ethnic breakdown of head coaches in the California Community Colleges. In 1988-89, the proportion of Caucasians (984) holding head coaching assignments was .823, while the proportion of ethnic minorities(211) during the same time period was .177. In 1989-90, the number of Caucasians (969) decreased by 15 head coaching positions, dropping their proportion to .815. For ethnic minorities (220), they gained nine positions, increasing their proportion to .185 during the same time period. Caucasians (956) continued to lose positions, 13 in 1990-91, yet still maintained dominance in head coaching jobs with a proportion of .788. Meanwhile, ethnic minority groups (257) experienced their largest gain of 37 positions for .212 of head coaching assignments.

In 1991-92, Caucasians (976) regained 20 new head coach positions for a proportion of .801, while ethnic minorities (242) encountered a loss of 15 head coaching assignments for a proportion of .199. Caucasians (929) experienced their largest loss of 47 head coach positions in 1992-93 for a proportion of .809 and ethnic minorities (219) were dropped of 23 for a proportion of .191. The ensuing year, 1993-94, Caucasians (941) were offered 12 head coach positions, increasing their proportion to .816; however, ethnic minorities (212) were confronted with another decrease of seven positions dropping their proportion to .184.

In the following year, 1994-95, ethnic minorities (214) reestablished two new coaching assignments for a proportion of .185. Although, Caucasians (944) gained three jobs their proportion decreased slightly to .815. The next year, 1995-96, people of color

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(225) were offered eleven positions, increasing their proportion to .193, whereas Caucasians (942) lost two positions decreasing their proportion .807. The final year of the study, 1996-97, Caucasians (960) gained 18 additional positions increasing their proportion to .804. That same year, ethnic minorities (234) achieved nine positions for .196.

Table 16

Caucasian Head Coaches versus Ethnic Minority Head Coaches in the California Community Colleges

	Caucasians		Ethnic Minorities		Total Positions
Year	f	π	f	π	f
1988-89	984	.823	211	.177	1,195
1989-90	969	.815	220	.185	1,189
1990-91	956	.788	257	.212	1,213
1991-92	976	.801	242	.199	1,218
1992-93	929	.809	219	.191	1,148
1993-94	941	.816	212	.184	1,153
1994-95	944	.815	214	.185	1,158
1995-96	942	.807	225	.193	1,167
1996-97	960	.804	234	.196	1,194
Totals	8,601	.809	2,034	.191	10,635

Note. The greatest gain for ethnic minorities occurred in 1990-91 where they gained 37 head coach positions.

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In summary, during the nine-year study, it is evident from the data that ethnic minority groups gained 23 head coaching positions, while Caucasians lost 24 coaching positions. Nonetheless, Caucasians dominate ethnic minorities in head coaching positions, where they hold 960 of 1194 over the nine-year observation.

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CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study investigated the hiring trends of athletic leadership positions in the California community colleges, belonging to the Commission on Athletics (COA), from 1988 through 1997. The Equal Employment Opportunity Survey was utilized to examine the proportion of change in assignment of athletic directors and head coaches. Population parameters were obtained, because all members of the population were measured, therefore no inferential statistics were needed. The discussion of the results, as well as, the conclusions and recommendations are the focus of this chapter.

Summary of the Study

This study was a significant nine-year longitudinal research dealing with opportunities for women and people of color to represent the prestigious California community colleges in athletic leadership positions. The California community colleges represent the most diverse student population in the world. This magnanimous diverse post-secondary system encourages academic opportunity for over 1.5 million students yearly and athletic competition in 22 (12 men's teams and 10 women's teams) sports for over 23,000 student-athletes statewide (California Community College Athletic Directory [CCCAD], 1996).

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However, athletic leadership opportunities for women and people of color are nearly non-existent. This research study provided a solid foundation for the impact on affirmative action and the hiring numbers of women and people of color entering the field of athletic leadership. The growth of underrepresented populations in the State of California has created an influx of demographic challenges. These demographic changes have caused state legislators to set goals and objectives to meet these challenging needs. The hiring of qualified professional women and people of color in athletic leadership positions is essential to provide equity for women and people of color, as well as to develop positive role models to reflect California's demographic changes.

The California community college system is known as the largest and most diverse in the world with over 107 college campuses and 1.5 million students. Of the 107 campuses, 101 belong to the Commission on Athletics, which host intercollegiate athletics, where over 23,000 student-athletes enjoy the opportunities of sport. Athletic competition in the California community colleges is only statewide making it especially interesting to study this unique complex system (CCCAD, 1996). Moreover, no studies have ever been conducted on the California community college athletic programs with respect to diversity and equity for women and people of color regarding athletic leadership positions.

The literature reveals that legislation and court decisions have played major roles in the opportunities for women and people of color to enjoy the benefits of intercollegiate athletics. Title VI and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the 1972 Higher Education Guidelines provided breakthrough legislation asserting fair hiring practices with application to any educational institutions receiving federal funding. However, it is

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apparent from this study that underrepresented groups have not prospered in leadership positions. Even though, several federal and state mandates were enacted to prevent discrimination in employment.

Particular to this study, the State of California mandated legislation to govern affirmative action, including the California Education Code: Sections 200-264 and California Government Code Sections 11135-11139-5; to protect the equal rights and opportunities of all individuals. However, the opportunity for employment and diversity of women and people of color has not impacted the California community colleges. Therefore, in 1988, California Assembly Bill 1725 was adopted to integrate equitable recruitment and hiring practices in the California Community College System for underrepresented groups (BGCCC, 1989).

Despite the Federal and State legislative efforts, California community college athletic programs have long been associated with White male administration. Reflecting on the years prior to the 1972 passage of Title IX, women administered and coached women's collegiate athletic programs, holding 90% of all positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996). With the inception of Title IX, men took a major role in the leadership of women's athletic programs. Therefore, while Title IX allowed for a dramatic increase of sport opportunities for girls and women at the interscholastic and intercollegiate levels, it also became the demise of administrative and coaching opportunities for women leaders.

Meanwhile, participation in athletics for people of color continues to increase, yet there are still uneven playing fields for people of color in athletic leadership positions at all intercollegiate levels. Thus, opportunities for people of color, remain uneven and unequal compared to their White counterparts (Farrell, 1998).

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Purposes

The purposes of this study were as follows:

1. To report the sports offerings sanctioned by the COA to determine Title IX compliance for the years 1988 through 1997.

2. To determine the significant proportion in the hiring trends of women in athletic leadership positions for the years 1988 through 1997.

3. To determine the significant proportion in the hiring trends of ethnic minority athletic leadership positions for the years 1988 through 1997.

4. To determine the significant proportion of women of color compared to men of color in athletic leadership positions for the years 1988 through 1997.

5. To determine the significant proportion of Caucasians versus ethnic minorities in athletic leadership positions for the years 1988 through 1997.

Methodology

This was a descriptive survey research. The study included all 101 California community colleges holding membership to the COA and responded to the survey that included questions about the sports offered, the gender and ethnicity of the athletic directors and head coaches. The purpose was to determine the hiring trends over a nine-year period, from 1988 through 1997.

Findings

The key findings related to the research questions proposed in this study are summarized as follows:

1. Sport offerings for women in the California community colleges increased ever so slightly over the nine-year period. The California community colleges reported a

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proportion of .413 of all sports offered to women in 1988-89. By 1996-97, the proportion of sports offerings for women was .455. The reasoning for reporting this section of athletics is to review coaching opportunities for women, particularly, since women are given less opportunity to coach in the men's sports programs, as this study will showed. Interestingly, the literature revealed that the California community college system's student population is 60% full-time female (Nussbaum, 1997). Yet, these data indicates sport offerings in the California community colleges are out of compliance as it applies to Title IX and the Office of Civil Rights.

2. In athletic administration, women held a proportion of .188 of the athletic director positions in 1988-89. By 1996-97, women went up to an all-time high, proportion of .261 a very positive proportional increase from 1988. However, today men still overwhelmingly hold a proportion of .739 of all athletic director positions. These figures unfortunately are low compared to data prior to Title IX (1972) when women held over 90% of the athletic programs (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996).

3. It is evident that the impact of Title IX has affected all coaching opportunities for women in the in the California community colleges. These statistical proportions showed that gains occurred for women coaches of all sports programs, with 64 positions over the nine-year period, although the proportions are extremely limited. At the beginning of this longitudinal study, dating back to 1988-89, women held a proportion of .168 of all head coach positions. By the end of the study in 1996-97, women moved up to a proportion of .222 of the positions. For women coaches, it can easily be implied that the reflection of the gender of the administration reflects the gender of the coaching staff. In 1996-97, male administrators held a proportion of .739, while male coaches held a

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proportion of .778. These statistics strongly indicates the process of Kanter's theory of homologous reproduction, in which the dominant group reproduces its own self-image.

4. The statistics indicates women coaches of women's sports programs made no significant proportional gains over the nine-year period. In 1988-89, women coached a proportion of .387 of the women's sports programs at the California community colleges. In 1996-97, women increased to a total of .449 of head coaching positions for women sports programs. This statistic was slightly below the national four-year college average of 47.4%. Yet, males still occupy the majority of coaching positions of women's sport programs with a proportion of .545 by the end of the 1997 academic year.

5. The data indicates no significant proportional gains for women coaching in the men's sports programs. Women coaching in the men's sports programs are nearly nonexistent in the California community colleges. In1988-89 women coached a scarce proportion of .014, whereas males controlled with a proportion of .986 of the coaching positions of men's sports programs. Meanwhile in 1996-97, there was little growth for women as they increased to proportion of .032 with men controlling the men's sports programs at 968. Most of the women in the men's sports programs coached combined sports such as swimming, cross-country, or golf. It is evident that women are given fewer opportunities to coach in the men's sports programs at the California community colleges over the nine-year period.

6. For each ethnic group in athletic director positions, the data indicates no significant proportional gains for any group over the nine years. Breaking down the ethnicity of the athletic directors in 1988-89, Caucasians held the majority of athletic director positions with a proportion of .848, followed by African Americans at .071;

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Latinos .054, Native Americans .018, while Asians at .009 were least represented of these athletic leadership positions. By 1996-97, Caucasians still overwhelmingly dominated the athletic director positions with a proportion of .800. Latinos surpassed Blacks with a proportion of .070, meantime Asians increased in positions and Blacks decreased thus both holding an equal proportion .061, while Native American dropped to an extremely low representation of .009.

7. The ethnic breakdown among female and male athletic directors found significant differences over the nine-year period. Asian females had a higher proportional representation compared to their male counterparts at .80 to .20. Black males have more representation than their female counterparts with a proportion of .959 to .041. Caucasian males dominated their female counterparts by holding a proportion of .792 to .208 of the athletic director positions. However low, Native American males and other male ethnic groups held 100% of positions, while their respective female counterparts held no positions throughout the nine-year research. Latino males were represented with .679, while Latino women held .321 of the available positions. These results indicate male dominance when comparing the gender and ethnicity of the athletic director positions with the exception of the Asian female group.

8. This study showed no significant gains in the proportion of ethnic minority athletic directors compared to the proportion of Caucasian athletic directors. Breaking down the proportion of athletic directors of color is even more discouraging than for women athletic directors. In 1988-89, ethnic minorities held .152 of the athletic director positions, while Caucasians held .844. Nine years later, in 1996-97, ethnic minorities held .20 of all athletic director positions with Caucasians holding .80. These data

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indicates that while opportunities for ethnic minorities in athletic leadership positions have improved, they still remain scarce. More discouraging is that the California community colleges still lack in diversity in athletic leadership positions, with Caucasians dominating these positions throughout the nine-year period.

9. There were no significant proportional gains in the hiring trends of ethnic minority head coaches of all sports over the nine-year period. From 1988 through 1997, Caucasians held a proportion of .804 of the head coaching positions; Blacks were a distant second having gained .008 for a total of .085, followed by Latinos, who gained .011 for a total .075. Asians gained a mere proportion of .006, accounting for .029 of head coaching positions, whereas Native Americans dropped from .013 to .004, with other ethnic groups earning a total of .003 of all head coach positions over the nine-year period.

10. The results for female and male head coaches of color indicated significant proportional differences when the data were collapsed across the nine reporting years. The proportion of all males holding head coach positions throughout the study was .808. The breakdown indicated Asian males when compared to Asian females held .723 of the head coach positions; Black males held .914 to their female counterparts at .086; Caucasian males held .792 with Caucasian females holding only .208. Native American males dominated their female counterparts with a proportion of .949 to .051. Latino males held .872, while their female counterparts held .128. The other ethnic groups revealed that males held .943 compared to females at .057 of all head coaching positions. This overrepresentation of male coaches leaves women and women of color holding less than 20% of all the head coach positions in the California community colleges.

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11. A comparison of Caucasian head coaches to ethnic minority head coaches over the nine-year period resulted in no significant proportional hiring trends. People of color held .177 of the head coaching positions in 1988-89 and by 1996-97, they held a .196. For people of color, this result of a .019 increase indicates a lack of opportunities in head coaching positions over the nine-year period. Whereas, the Caucasians head coaching opportunities were an overwhelming .804 of the positions.

Conclusion

This study shows that during the last three decades several federal affirmative action laws that dealt with equal hiring opportunities were enacted, such as Title VII, The 1972 Higher Education Guidelines and Title IX in gender equity. In California, AB 1725 was established to encourage the hiring opportunities for women and people of color in the community college system. However, in spite of these various attempts to deal positively with affirmative action, it appears that the California community college system has shown little significance in the hiring trends for women and people of color.

This study indicates that of the 1194 sports offerings available over the nine-year period, the overall proportion of sports offered to women (543) was.455 compared to men's (651) at .545. The proportion of sport offerings for women are obviously not equitable compared to the men. Interestingly, most of the California Community College campuses have a full-time student ratio of 60% female to 40% male (Nussbaum, 1997), yet women's sport offerings in the COA are less than .460. These numbers indicate a lack of compliance to Title IX. The California Community College System must pay

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more attention to matters of Title IX violations and compliance, in order to reach equitable outcomes and prevent law suits.

In athletic director positions, men clearly dominated these leadership positions in every year of the study. By the end of the nine years, men held 85 of the 115 positions available with a proportion of .739; women held a distant 30 positions for a proportion of .261. These data truly indicate a blatant lack of hiring opportunities for women.

On the other hand, people of color in athletic director positions indicated an even smaller proportion of .200 over the nine-year period. The breakdown of each individual ethnic group shows an even bigger picture of the dismal outcome for people of color in athletic administration in the nine-year period. Caucasians (92) held .800, followed by Latinos (8) at a distant .071, Asians (7) and Blacks (7) each held .061 and Native Americans (1) barely held .009. Obviously, people of color are not entering the athletic administration field in equivalent numbers as Caucasians, where they hold a scant 23 of 115 positions available over the nine years. These statistics indicate that Caucasians dominate the athletic director positions, potentially limiting the pool of employment and availability for people of color. The hiring pool for women of color was extremely limited, with the exception of Asian females. The breakdown of each individual ethnic group by gender shows an even bigger picture of the dismal outcome for women of color in administration over the nine-year period.

This study validates Kanter's theory in that the reflection of the administrator will be the reflection of the staff. Interestingly, women head coaches of all sports programs were found to hold a proportion of .222 over the nine-year academic period, whereas the

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female administrators make up a proportion of .261. Of course, men held the majority of both coaching positions and administration positions with a proportion of .778 and .739.

Unquestionably, sport offerings for women have increased in the California Community Colleges since the COA, although not equitable to those offered to men. Yet, women have not been able to regain control of their respective program prior to the passage of Title IX, when they coached over 90% of the female sport programs. Over the nine-year period, women (244) coaching women's sport programs increased to .449, yet that is less than half of the women's sport teams. Nevertheless, men (299) have taken control of the women's sport programs with .551 of the positions available.

When it comes to women (21) coaching men's sports programs; it is obvious that opportunities were extremely limited for women, where they held a scarce .032 compared to their male counterparts (630) holding a proportion of .968 of 651 positions available. Women of color are extremely underrepresented in coaching position holding a sparse .024 of the positions over the nine-year period. Head coaching positions held by men and women of color were .196 over a nine-year span. Unfortunately, these proportions do not reflect the ethnic diversity of the community colleges at 33% (Nussbaum, 1997).

While there has been legislation to assist in the hiring of women and people of color, it appears actual hiring or availability of positions has been limited. Factual information attributes legislation with providing increased opportunity for hiring pools that encouraged women and people of color to apply for athletic leadership positions. However, other factors which influence hiring practices deal with location of positions; limited retirement vacancies; more rigorous contracts; coaching more than one sport or a complex teaching schedule; and/or a low incentive to teach and/or coach part-time. One

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way for opportunities to increase in leadership positions for women and people of color is for them to improve their coaching and teaching experience, prior to applying at the community college, without this experience there seems to be no opportunity for upward mobility.

Recommendations

The impetus for this study was rooted by the initial lack of research on the California community colleges athletic programs, as it relates to gender and ethnic hiring trends. This study provides baseline data that will allow further studies on gender and ethnic minority representation.

It is further recommended that athletic leadership positions continue to be tracked to foresee the future hiring trends and assess the success of equity legislation. Most importantly, women and people of color need to be mentored into the field of community college athletics. Moreover, the hiring of women and people of color must become a significant component of each hiring pool at the California community college campuses.

The California community college system must produce opportunities for minority hires to recognize the impact of mentoring on such a diverse student population. Encouragement to look outside one's own environment must be the norm not the exception. Furthermore, it must be noted that mentoring through the hiring process is encouraged so that women and people of color recognize the application procedures and perceive future employment. It is also imperative that part-time positions be advertised to increase the hiring pool for women and people of color to enter and gain experience in the community college system.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CALIFORNIA COMMUNITY COLLEGES

CALIFORNIA COMMUNITY COLLEGES

The following California community colleges belong to the Commission on Athletics. These campuses were contacted by telephone for completion of the Equal Employment Opportunity Survey for the years 1988-89 through 1990-91.

1. Allan Hancock College
2. American River College
3. Antelope Valley College
4. Bakersfield College
5. Barstow College
6. Butte College
7. Cabrillo College
8. Canada College
9. Cerritos College
10. Cerro Coso College
11. Chabot College
12. Chaffey College
13. Citrus College
14. City College of San Francisco
15. Cuesta College
16. College of Alameda
17. College of Marin
18. College of San Mateo
19. College of the Canyons
20. College of the Desert
21. College of the Redwoods
22. College of the Sequoias
23. College of the Siskiyous
24. Columbia College
25. Compton College
26. Contra Costa College
27. Cosumnes River
28. Cuyamaca College
29. Cypress College
30. De Anza College
31. Diablo Valley College
32. East Los Angeles College
33. El Camino College
34. Feather River College
35. Foothill College
36. Fresno City College
37. Fullerton College
38. Gavilan College
39. Glendale College
40. Golden West College
41. Grossmont College
42. Hartnell College
43. Imperial Valley College
44. Irvine Valley College
45. Kings River College
46. Lake Tahoe Community College
47. Laney College
48. Las Positas College
49. Lassen College
50. Long Beach City College
51. Los Angeles City College
52. Los Angeles Harbor College
53. Los Angeles Mission College
54. Los Angeles Pierce College
55. Los Angeles Southwest
56. Los Angeles Trade-Tech College
57. Los Angeles Valley College
58. Los Medanos College
59. Marymount College
60. Mendocino College
61. Merced College
62. Merritt College

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63. Miracosta College
64. Mission College
65. Modesto Jr. College
66. Monterey Peninsula
67. Moorpark College
68. Mt. San Antonio College
69. Mt. San Jacinto College
70. Napa Valley College
71. Ohlone College
72. Orange Coast College
73. Oxnard College
74. Palomar College
75. Pasadena City College
76. Porterville College
77. Rio Hondo College
78. Riverside College
79. Sacramento City College
80. Saddleback College
81. San Bernardino Valley College
82. San Diego City College
83. San Diego Mesa College
84. San Joaquin Delta College
85. San Jose College
86. Santa Ana College
87. Santa Barbara College
88. Santa Monica College
89. Santa Rosa J. College
90. Shasta College
91. Sierra College
92. Skyline College
93. Solano College
94. Southwestern College
95. Taft College
96. Ventura College
97. Victor Valley College
98. West Hills College
99. West Los Angeles College
100. West Valley College
101. Yuba College

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APPENDIX B

SURVEY

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EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY SURVEY[5]

School Name _____ School Year ____

Please place a check mark ✓ in the appropriate athletic administration position.

Head Athletic Director ____ Men's Athletic Director ____ Women's Athletic Director ____

Please use the following letters indicated in the legend to complete your responses. If you do not have a person filling a listed position or do not offer a listed sport put an "X" in the not applicable column.

LEGEND

Ethnicity		Gender		Education (Highest Level)		Position Status	
African American/Black	A	Male	M	Bachelors	B	Full-time Tenure	T
Asian/Pacific Islander	P	Female	F	Masters	M	Full-time	N
Caucasian/White	W			Doctorate	D	Part-time	P
Native American	N			Credential	C		
Latino/Hispanic	L						
Other ethnicity	O						

Position/ Sport	Ethnicity	Gender	Education	Position Status	Not Applicable
Administration					
Head Athletic Director					
M Athletic Director					
W Athletic Director					
Assistant Director					
Head Coach					
M Baseball					
M Basketball					
W Basketball					
M Cross Country					
W Cross Country					
M Football					
M Golf					
W Golf					
M Soccer					
W Soccer					
W Softball					
M Swimming					
W Swimming					
M Tennis					
W Tennis					
M Track & Field					
W Track & Field					
M Volleyball					
W Volleyball					
M Water Polo					
W Water Polo					
M Wrestling					

Survey designed and prepared by Reyna Griselda Rosas

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APPENDIX C

COVER LETTER

Office of University Research
California State University, Long Beach

Department of Kinesiology & Physical Education
California State University, Long Beach
1250 Bellflower Boulevard
Long Beach, California 90840

Mr./Ms. (Name of Athletic Director),

My name is Reyna Rosas; I'm a graduate student in the Department of Kinesiology and Physical Education at California State University, Long Beach. I am conducting a telephone survey as part of my master's thesis. The thesis is entitled "Gender & Ethnic Hiring Trends of Athletic Leaders in the California Community Colleges." The study is collecting data on the number of female and ethnic minority athletic directors and head coaches in the California community colleges from 1988 through 1997.

I selected all institutions that belong to the Commission on Athletics to participate in this survey. This study, on the hiring trends of athletic leaders on the community colleges is greatly needed and I am asking your institution to become involved. I assure you anonymity and confidentiality, the name of your institution, athletic director (s) or head coaches will not be reported in this study.

Your participation will require approximately three minutes of your time. I will indicate your responses on the survey for the gender and ethnicity, education, and position status of the athletic staff in your institution. Following the completion of the study, I will gladly send you a summary of the findings.

Should you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at (714) 898-9158 or Dr. Dixie Grimmett at (562) 985-4082.

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